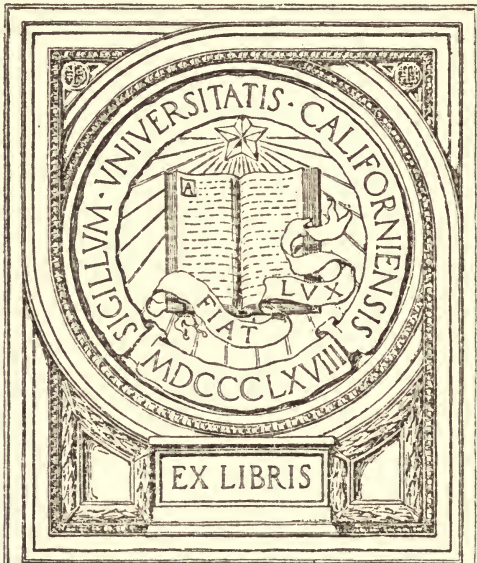
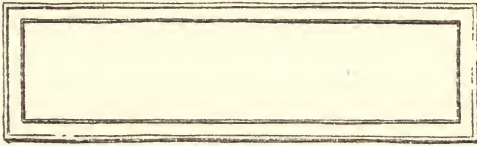


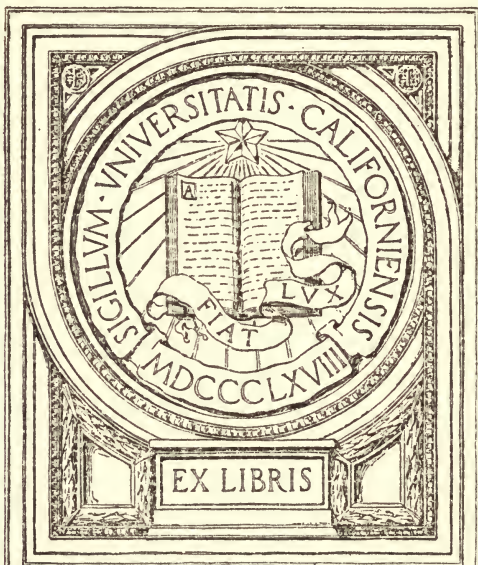
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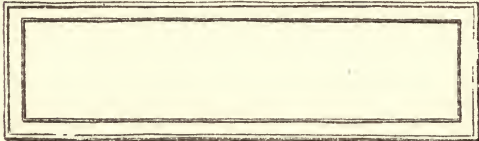
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HOW TO TEACH AMERICAN HISTORY



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HOW TO TEACH
AMERICAN HISTORY

A HANDBOOK
FOR
TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

BY

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THIS BOOK IS DEDICATED TO
MY PUPILS
WHO HAVE HELPED TO MAKE IT
AND WHO HAVE MADE
THE TASK A JOY

PREFACE

THIS volume is intended for use as a textbook in normal schools, teacher-training classes, and teachers' institutes, and as a handbook for the teacher and student in school or at home. The principles discussed are believed to be true of history in general, but the application throughout has been made to American history and to the study and teaching of history in American schools.

An effort has been made to have the style simple and intelligible. Technical terms not well settled in common usage have been avoided. A rather close and logical classification by chapters has been attempted, and the book lists have been classified and distributed. It has been my aim throughout to give in the book lists and footnotes information of practical value and to place it where it can be found conveniently. It is hoped that the complete index appended will be found a useful feature.

The methods herein suggested are an outgrowth of practice, and have been proved in the experience of capable teachers and students of history in many parts of the country. The portions of the book for which the author ventures to claim more or less originality, for example, Chapters IV, XIV, XVII, XIX, XX, XXIV, XXVI, XXVIII, XXX, are no exception to this rule; for they have all been evolved from actual

classroom experiment, most of them by what may properly be termed the laboratory process.

Special emphasis has been placed upon the moral values of history in normal social relations. Consequently the principles acknowledged are those that are constructive rather than destructive. The heroes extolled and the victories cheered are those of peace rather than those of war; and the "brave at home" are given due recognition.

It is suggested that teachers may find it desirable to introduce the matter of Chapter XXVII near the beginning of a course of instruction.

Special obligation is acknowledged to my friend, Miss Yetta S. Shoninger, B.S., of the George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, for valuable suggestions regarding the treatment of certain topics, and to Miss Elizabeth P. Cleveland, A.B., one of my colleagues in the State Normal School, Harrisonburg, Virginia, for helpful criticisms regarding form and for aid in reading proof.

For various appreciated favors grateful acknowledgment is made also to the following: Miss Beulah Wardell, M.A., Columbus, Ohio; Professor E. M. Violette, First District Normal School, Kirksville, Missouri; Dr. Frank A. Magruder, Princeton University; President John Preston McConnell, State Normal School, East Radford, Virginia.

JOHN W. WAYLAND.

HARRISONBURG, VIRGINIA,
July 20, 1914,

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HOW TO TEACH AMERICAN HISTORY

HOW TO TEACH AMERICAN HISTORY

CHAPTER I

TWO PRELIMINARY QUESTIONS

WE spend so much time and energy on the "What" and the "Where" and the "When" of history, as well as of other things, that we often forget or neglect the "How" and the "Why." All are important, and each must receive due attention in its place; but now let us consider briefly, in an introductory way, the "How" and the "Why."

Why study history. — *First*, we should study it, let us say, for the pleasure of it. Most things that most people do, when they act upon choice, are done for this reason. It may not be the best reason, but it is compelling in its appeal and universal in its scope. If the pleasure sought or found is clean and wholesome, then the reason is good. Normal pleasure, like springtime and youth, gives health to the body and growth to the spirit. The pleasure that comes with the study of history is like the pleasure of travel, which fills the eye with ever changing wonders; or like the fascination of the drama, which lifts

the far-flung curtain on a world stage, and presents before our eyes the Esthers, the Cæsars, the Alfreds, the Shakespeares, and all the people, in habit and in action.

Second, we should study history for the knowledge it supplies. Consciousness of intelligence and knowledge increases one's proper confidence, and heightens one's legitimate pleasures. Knowledge is the light of the soul, and only those souls that are born of the night can be satisfied in the narrow cells of ignorance. The great decree, "Let there be light," was spoken not to the world of material chaos alone, but to the world of potential consciousness as well. The desire to know is strong in every healthy mind, and this desire is justified by an eternal right. History is one of the great doors through which the soul goes out seeking and finding knowledge.

Third, we should study history as an aid to the appreciation of other things. The young lady who said, "I like history because I am very fond of reading, and history helps me to understand and enjoy what I read," gave a good reason. History enriches literature, it explains civil government, it justifies social institutions, it gives character to art, speech to architecture, and accompaniment to music. It teaches a thousand years of progress in a single arch or column, and unfolds the story of a race in the meaning of a word. It lifts the vision to a mountain-top, and there points down upon the mov-

ing ages. The family grows large in history ; the church comes to adorn herself with humility and charity ; the state proves the need of justice and equity ; and the school emerges as the fundamental rector of society. Geometry, physics, chemistry, and medicine are all well clad in the robe of history. The Roman law in Louisiana and the German law in England are anomalies until history uncovers the winding ways of the past. Shakespeare is only half understood and Milton speaks in an unknown tongue till Clio unfolds her wondrous parchment and becomes interpreter. Then strange words have meaning, and old words count double. Then the masters speak in our own familiar tongue, and we, delighted, listen.

Fourth, we should study history as a means to a better understanding of ourselves. "Know thyself" was inscribed over the main entrance to the temple at Delphi, and all the history of the world seems to be written as an aid to him who endeavors to obey. When the heathen said that that command came down from heaven, they spoke better than they knew. It is, indeed, divine. Being divine, it must be heeded ; and obedience is blessed. History teaches a man how small he is by showing him so many greater. It teaches him how great he may be by showing him what less favored men have done. It purges him of conceit by revealing his fancied originality as a commonplace of centuries gone. It over-

throws his dogmatism by proving to him that other men no less honest than he, and much wiser, have been mistaken in their judgments. It convinces him that he did not begin with himself, and that he cannot end with himself; that the most he has others have given him; that the most he knows others have taught him; and that all he can do he owes to others. History helps him to see himself as one among countless millions, yet it brings him to know himself as a man, in whom is potentially every power, feeling, thought, and achievement that any man has ever had, felt, known, or done.

Fifth, we should study history to broaden and quicken our sympathies with others. As we learn to know ourselves we are brought into closer touch with our fellows, whether of this age or of other ages. As we begin to know ourselves as men and women, we begin to understand other men and women, whom we soon recognize as our kinsfolk. From the primitive sense of the family bond, we soon perceive the cosmopolitan circle, and say for ourselves: "Being human, no human being is altogether a stranger to me." I have a little more charity for the crimson-handed worshipers in the dark forests of Germany when I remember that my ancestor was there, and that he probably forged the blade with which the victims were slain. I can understand a little better the swift fierceness of the Viking when I see that he was seeking a home for my mother's children. I

feel a little nearer to my neighbor here and now because history reveals to me that we were brothers just a few generations ago, and sat around the same hearth fire yonder.

I count every man a little braver because John Hampden and Walter Reed were men; every maid a little truer because Grace Darling and Elizabeth Zane were maids; and every woman a little nobler because Cornelia and Mary the mother of Washington were women. The laughter of Sarah, the sentiment of Ruth, the vanity of Darius, the hate of Electra, the frugality of Charlemagne, the wrath of William, the deceitfulness of Elizabeth, and the tears of Marie Antoinette bring the races and the ages nearer together; for a "touch of nature makes the whole world kin." If drama be a mirror to nature, history is its sympathetic system.

Sixth, we should study history to make us more efficient citizens. "History for its own sake" is as incomprehensible as "knowledge for its own sake." If knowledge for self is selfish, knowledge for itself is absurd. It is knowledge for service that is wisdom. As a great American educator has recently put it, "Scholarship and knowledge fulfill themselves only in service to men."¹

History for self is selfish; history for itself is absurd. History for efficiency in service to home and church and state, in the present and for the future,

¹ President Edwin A. Alderman.

is history worth while. The study of history should make the citizen more intelligently patriotic, and increase his capacity for all healthy sentiment. It should enlarge his powers for social influence and constructive statesmanship. It should give him aggressive confidence, balanced by judicial caution. It should make him a seeker after the truth and the right in every public question, rather than a partisan vendor of arguments. It should give him breadth and perspective, and at the same time give him penetration and skill in particular cases.

How to study history.— This is a subject which we should study with enjoyment, as something fascinating; with discernment, as something profound; with reverence, as something bequeathed the race in sacred trust; with intense earnestness, as something vital to the welfare of society.

Let the child study history at home, in his own family. Perhaps the house he lives in has a history. Perhaps his father or his grandfather has done or knows something of historical significance. There may be some old land patents, beautifully written on parchment now yellow with age, in that old desk. There may be files of an old newspaper, almost priceless now, stored away in the attic. In yonder ancient chest are almost certainly some old letters written from Manassas in '61, from California in '49, or from the falling cities in '37. That old diary is now a treasure house of long-forgotten facts, and that

old relic may recall the story of thrilling days and deeds. Let all these sources and resources of the child's home be utilized to wake up and lead out the child's spirit. It will answer to these voices of the past, for they speak in familiar tones.

Having had his historical spirit and instincts awakened at home, the child will readily adopt the methods of the school. The teacher should take account of what the child has already done and learned, or failed to do and learn. An appreciation of what he has will make him appreciate what the teacher offers, and soon the resources of the school will be seized upon with eagerness.

From the school it is an easy step to the surrounding neighborhood. Let the teacher and the class find the oldest house in town, and ascertain its history. If the town is a county-seat, the public records to be found there will prove rich and interesting. Probably in the nearest cemetery is the grave of some noted man or woman; and almost certainly there is some historic spot in the neighborhood that ought to be visited and marked before the very place is lost. Frequently patriotic societies offer prizes for essays on historical characters and subjects, and these may be made the means of inducing a whole class or a whole school to undertake special studies of interest and value. It may be that some person in the community has published a book or paper of historical content. If so, such publica-

tion should be made familiar in the school, and the author secured to address the history classes.

The story of one's home and family, his town, his neighborhood, his county, may not be history in the sense demanded by the critics; but it is a beginning; and history, like charity, may well begin at home. Beginning at home, the student will go abroad with interest, intelligence, and appreciation. Moreover, the principles of history and of historical study are all, or nearly all, truly illustrated in small circles and in small events as well as in large circles and great events.

Let the student of history not only acquaint himself with the facts that are common knowledge, but also add to the store by every possible discovery. And let it be part of his business to preserve what is in danger of being lost, as well as to discover what has hitherto been unknown.

Finally, let him aim continually at tracing the past into the present; that is, to show how and in what measure past events, conditions, and movements have registered themselves in our existing customs, laws, character, and institutions. He must do this to understand the things and the people about him. Whether he begin with the present and go backward, or begin with the far-away past and come forward, he should have always the consciousness that in history there is a unity and a continuity that cannot be broken except with loss. There may

be many inhabited globes, but the earth is one, and the people upon it are in all essentials one; and their story, with its many plots, counterplots, and episodes, is, after all, one story.¹

¹ "The Reconstruction of History Teaching," by J. M. Gathany, in *Education* for June, 1914, will be read with interest in connection with this chapter.

CHAPTER II

THE MEANING OF HISTORY

HISTORY is not merely a collection of dates ; it is not a field of disjointed dry bones ; it is not even or altogether a series of pretty stories. And yet all these things enter into history, each contributing its share of color or character or place.

Dates make up a sort of geometry of time. Without them the ages would be not only boundless, but also without proper division and adjustment. The relentless flood of years, like the dark flood of the Nile, would sweep away the landmarks, one by one, and leave the mind of man a wanderer upon the unmarked waste. Chronology, therefore, is to the historian what geometry is to the Egyptian. Both are necessary, yet chronology is not history any more than geometry is Egypt. The street numbers are not the city ; yet a city without street numbers would approximate a history without dates.

The paths across the western plains in early days were bordered with disjointed bones and pieces of broken wagons. In these were written the records of a stirring, striving past. Each whitened fragment held its story, heroic and tragic. Yet these scat-

tered, voiceless fragments were neither attractive nor intelligible. A vital power must breathe upon them; a prophet's wand must touch them; then they take form and motion, an exceeding great army. Then the martyrs of a time, the pathfinders of a people, the heralds of an empire pass and speak before us. History is not dry bones; neither are dry bones history; but when the prophet comes, when the true historian walks upon the plain, the dead past stirs and leaps into the living present.

History stories have a charm, a value, and a place in our work, even though they are not history in the scientific sense. They give color to the whole horizon, and induce the eager youth to hasten toward the realms of light, to climb upon the heights, and there to see the long procession of the ages coming from the distant East. We shall find much need for history stories as we proceed in this study; let us, therefore, not reject them, even though they are not strictly history.

Let us open our eyes to the fact that history is not a small subject. Let us forever quit talking about "finishing" English history, for example, in a year. Let us quit thinking that eight years in the grades and one more year in the high school are too many to give to the study of United States history. Let us recognize the impossibility, even by the magic of scientific classification, of compassing or comprehending in a brief lifetime all that it has taken mil-

lions of men and women, living and striving and suffering and conquering for uncounted centuries, to work out. Let us not imagine, when we have read a dozen or two books of history, that we have done more than make a beginning upon the thousands of books already written, or the thousands more that might be written.

Again, let us not imagine that history is an easy subject — so easy as not to deserve our best effort or require the exercise of our highest powers. History has easy phases, easy stages, and may be introduced to children to their keen delight; but history in its entirety presents the profoundest philosophy of human life and destiny. It has had as its producers the mightiest men and women of every nation, and it has engaged the growing interest of toil and genius in every land and every age. The fact that it is not an exact science — perhaps no science at all, as yet — makes its demands upon effort and reason all the more insistent. The fact that it foreshadows so wonderfully the destinies of the race makes its claims upon us compelling.

History is a great and vital subject. It is great for the reasons already indicated; it is vital because it is ever growing and because our interpretation and application of history mean life or death to the race.

History is the life story of the human race. It is a record of the past and a prophecy for the future. It is like the stream of a mighty river, in that it has a

course, a direction, an onward movement, despite its many windings, turnings, and eddies; it is like the life of every full-grown man, in that it presents all the stages of progressive development, from childhood to perfect manhood, without the necessity of death.

The story of history is ever growing; the stream of history is ever widening; the life of which it tells is ever becoming fuller and richer. History, to be complete, must portray and interpret this life in its manifold phases; it must not neglect one phase, nor emphasize another phase unduly. In the writing of history and in the teaching of history we are now coming to see that it has an intellectual phase, a moral phase, a religious phase, an economic phase, an industrial phase — many social phases — as well as a military phase and a political phase. Peace gives growth; anarchy is disease; war is bitter medicine: these are some of the truths that the historian is beginning to see and to teach.

The editor of the *World's Work* has recently put certain facts of the case before us in the following good form:—

“The changes in our economic and political life deserve much more attention than they usually get. As a nation we neglect these things. As children we are taught American history as a series of wars, from the conflicts with the Indians and the French, down through the Revolution, the Mexican War, and the Civil War to our conquest of

the Spanish islands. The true history of the United States is a succession of economic and political steps, here and there interrupted by war. Our more serious wars have been operations on the body politic. They have come only when some of the regular machinery of progress has broken down — when our politics and industry were sick. And the convalescence from the operation of war has been long and costly.

“The old saying, ‘Happy is the nation whose annals are few,’ is true when you think of annals, as most of our historians do, as being in a large part the records of wars. But wars do not mark the progress of a people. They mark their worst periods. The real annals of a people are the exploits of the men of inventive genius and constructive minds who make possible the ever-improving standards of life.”¹

Just as social life is constructive, so history is a constructive science, and accordingly deals properly with constructive rather than with destructive forces; with the positive rather than with the negative; with the normal rather than with the abnormal. War, for example, is destructive, abnormal. It is a negative value, so far as progress is concerned. The causes, the real character, and the results of war may be studied with profit, and should teach the nations wisdom; but to waste the powers of history in the glorification of war as such is open folly. The biography of a man deals naturally with his healthy

¹ *The World's Work*, August, 1913, p. 363.

working years and his positive achievements; not with his days or weeks of illness and violent delirium; so history finds its proper subject matter in the "years of noble deeds" that enrich the paths of peace, and not in the mad carnage of rage and strife. History is properly a record of life and growth, when strength and beauty are increasing, and the state abounds in good works. Such history will tend to repeat itself as the world grows wiser.

History is a wondrous chain, in which the links are cause and effect, forged in national eras, and composed of national and personal achievements. An event without a cause, a force without an effect, is as absurd in history as in physics. The forces of history work more slowly than those of physics, but no less surely. The sowing determines in due time the reaping in the life of a nation as well as in the life of a man. This fact rings a warning; it also reveals an inheritance. We, the people of the United States of America, are reaping happy harvests every year that were sown across the seas in Greece, in Rome, in Germany, in Britain. Other men have labored, and we have entered into their labors — in benefit as well as in responsibility. Not a single link in the chain is altogether lost or broken; but some are of wood and stubble; some are of brass and iron; some are of blood and sorrow; and some are of gold.

History is not only recordation, it is also interpretation. It records facts and interprets life. In its

full and perfect scope it begins and ends in moral values. The qualities of courage, justice, patience, industry, and self-sacrifice that distinguish the better makers of history are all moral qualities; and the finest results that we seek or realize from the making and learning of history are those that are registered in personal and national character. Achievement, record, interpretation, application: this is the perpetual cycle in which the forces of history move as they come from past to present, and go from present to future.¹

¹ In the *American Historical Review*, July, 1913, is a scholarly article entitled, "The Interpretation of History," by J. T. Shotwell.

CHAPTER III

SUBJECTS CLOSELY RELATED TO HISTORY

BRANCHES of learning, like men and women, are found naturally in groups; and just as it helps us in studying a man to know something of his kinsmen, so in studying a science it helps us to make use of related subjects. We must, of course, beware of going too far afield, and we must not confuse so many things as to rob all of distinctness; yet, as we concentrate attention upon the subject in hand, we should give occasional and due recognition to those related subjects that stand nearest.

History depends in a measure upon geography, and is vitally related to literature, music, art, civil government, ethics, sociology, economics, and natural science; and in studying it we may profit largely by illustrating it with handwork of various sorts.

In greater or less degree the geography of a country makes its history; and nearly every great event and stirring incident is associated with some particular place. This association should always be strengthened rather than weakened; and the bonds should be carried over from both sides. The teacher of his-

tory should make a bond with geography, and the teacher of geography should make a bond with history. Unfortunately, these bonds often are not well tied, or they are neglected altogether. In numberless cases it has been observed that questions in historical geography are the most puzzling of all to history students. I fear that we teachers have not been doing our duty here. It may be that sometime the ideal textbook will be written, in which the things that belong together will be so skillfully and harmoniously joined that no man can put them asunder. Then, perhaps, the proper association of history and geography will be easy. But in the meantime let us make good use of the maps, pictures, and geographical descriptions with which our history books already abound.

It is in the study of industrial history, to which we are giving increasing attention, that the dependence of history upon geography becomes most obvious. Differences over great questions like slavery and the tariff have depended largely upon differences in geography. The location of great manufacturing and commercial cities was never an accident, but each place was marked out ages in advance in the geography of plain or river, of mountain pass or ocean bay.

When we speak of history and literature we are merely turning the shield. For we may speak of history as a branch of literature, or of literature as a

branch of history.¹ We may not so often study history for its literary value, but we frequently do study literature for the light it gives to history. Literature helps to make history, and history helps to explain literature. How different the modern world would be without the English Bible and the poems of Milton; yet how little could we understand or appreciate either without the history in them and around them! He who studies literature without having his ear open continually to the voice of history limits his understanding and loses half his pleasure. He who follows the path of history without pausing before the glowing pictures that literature has painted robs his imagination and stifles his sentiment.

The teacher must not confuse fact and fiction, nor use a novel as a textbook; but having the skeleton of fact well set up, well proportioned, and well articulated, let him then clothe it even with the warm flesh and blood of poetry and fiction. It is not alone what we learn that is valuable, it is what we remember. Poetry and fiction make the scene and the character so vivid and full that we cannot forget them. It is not alone what we understand that is helpful, it is what we feel and aspire to. Poetry and fiction often become the oratory of history, and we start up crying, "Let us march against Philip; let us conquer or die!"

¹ See an article in the *American Historical Review*, April, 1913, entitled, "History as Literature," by Theodore Roosevelt.

John Richard Green, in discussing a certain group of Shakespeare's plays, says : —

“ No dramas have done so much for Shakspeare's enduring popularity with his countrymen as these historical plays. They have done more than all the works of English historians to nourish in the minds of Englishmen a love of and reverence for their country's past. When Chatham was asked where he had read his English history, he answered, ‘ In the plays of Shakspeare.’ Nowhere could he have read it so well, for nowhere is the spirit of our history so nobly rendered.”¹

If we are concerned about the spirit as well as the letter of our history, we cannot afford to neglect the best incarnations of that spirit. American students and teachers are fortunate here in a wealth of resources ; for it is said that no less than forty per cent of the standard novels in English and American literature are historical in theme and setting.² The number of our fine historical poems mounts into the hundreds. Longfellow's “ The Skeleton in Armor ” and “ Evangeline,” Joaquin Miller's “ Columbus,” Mrs. Hemans's “ Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers,” Lanier's “ Lexington,” Bryant's “ Song of Marion's Men,” Gallagher's “ The Mothers of the West,”

¹ “History of the English People,” by John Richard Green ; Book VI, Chapter VII.

² “The History of a History,” p. 1 ; The Tabard Inn Book Company, Philadelphia.

Butterworth's "Whitman's Ride for Oregon," Timrod's "The Cotton Boll," Mrs. Preston's "Gone Forward," and Roche's "Panama" are a few that are typical of a large class. Students and teachers of American history should know these poems and use them.

In the Old World a great wealth of history is embodied in music and art: in ballads, in operas, in oratorios, in national hymns, in castles, in palaces, in temples, in bridges, and in the marvelous old cathedrals. In the New World our corresponding resources are not so great, but they are growing; age will bring them to full measure; and even now we have enough to be helpful in many connections. The melodies of the plantation negroes, the primitive art of the Indians in textiles and pottery, the architecture of lost races in old ruins, not to speak of the splendid things our own artists have wrought, will be utilized with increasing profit in the years to come.

It is in art and music that we may most easily, perhaps, take up the golden threads that bind us to the other lands across the seas. The music to "America" is vibrant with the history of half a dozen great countries of Europe. "Maryland, My Maryland" is sung to an old melody that comes to us out of the German forests; and even the tune of "The Star-Spangled Banner" was first heard through the mists and fogs of London. Mark the columns and capitals at the front of your school

building: they probably speak of Attica or Tuscany. The bold span of the stone bridge yonder may be telling what builders the Romans were. The pointed arches of the church and the round arches of the colonnade all remind the grateful pupil of his Old World teachers. The painting on the wall may be Italian; the church is probably Gothic; the towers at the campus gate may be Norman. Each has its story — its inwrought history — for the American youth. The Raphaels, the Wrens, the Rossinis, the Wagners, the Storys, the Copleys, and the Morses have been working industriously for centuries to equip the history laboratory.

Obviously, civil government is closely related to history. We may say that history depends upon geography; that it embodies its best spirit in literature, music, and art; and that it registers its teaching to society at large in the organized state. If we take the Federal Constitution, with its various amendments, as a text, we may find registered therein all the great forces, movements, and interests of United States history. Accordingly, in studying the history of our country we should take particular care to indicate the origins and development of our great forms of government. It may help the pupil's understanding and stimulate his interest to show him that "politics" ought to be the science of government; that politicians ought to be really patriotic statesmen; and that our forms of government, in

town and county, in state and nation, are only the great lessons of history that have been demonstrated in one country after another, from age to age.

History should teach ethics to each individual man and woman. It makes possible the science of sociology, which is or ought to be ethics for the race in its related groups. The greatest values of history are moral values, and these should be registered in the characters of so many individuals that they appear as dominating society as a whole. The teacher's business is to see that history counts as an ethical factor in the life and character of each of his pupils; then in time the effect will be seen in the moral elevation of society at large. "Public spirit" and "public sentiment" are the names we apply to these forces when they become general; but they must take rise in individual hearts, before the faces of individual teachers. The teacher of history must not only be a teacher of ethics, as indicated, but he must also help to lay the foundation upon which other teachers of ethics, civics, and sociology build. In like manner, the increasing attention that is being given to these subjects in the schools will aid and supplement the teaching of history.

Economics may be thought of as the state's business policy: its system of principles and methods in managing its food supply, its money, its lands, and other forms of wealth. Most business men find such records as day books, ledgers, and market

reports of value to them in their business. These records contain the history of their business. In like manner a town, a state, or a confederation finds that its day books, ledgers, and market reports have an industrial and a commercial value. These books and reports are its history — a result of public bookkeeping. Business without bookkeeping would be unwise, if possible at all; and the larger the business, the larger the books that must be kept. Just as good business requires good bookkeeping, so good economics require good history. Our national history and our national business policies must be perfected together. The expansion of social, economic, and industrial phases in the writing and teaching of American history is noticeable as a present-day educational tendency, and is thoroughly justified by our economic needs. We must not live altogether in the material, but we cannot live altogether out of it.

Natural science, including its applications to useful arts and its practical operations in great inventions, has perhaps done more than anything else to make modern history. The invention of printing, the making of gunpowder, the successful use of the mariner's compass, the cotton gin, the railroad train, the steamboat, the telegraph, the sewing machine, the Copernican theory, the teaching of evolution, the practice of medicine, the wonders of modern surgery, have revolutionized the world. They have corre-

spondingly affected history. The teacher of chemistry and physics and astronomy and physiology should have respect for the story of this marvelous progress; and the teacher of history must acknowledge his debt and the debt of the race to the heroes and martyrs of science.

Finally, the teacher of history may naturally and profitably introduce some handwork into his courses. Thereby he may secure the values of concreteness, tangibility, keener interest, and more thorough understanding. These values are specially desirable in the work of young pupils; and it is accordingly in the primary and intermediate grades that constructive manual work should be given its largest proportion. To gather miniature poles and make a wigwam; to cut little logs, and build a settler's cabin; to make a tiny canoe, or a tomahawk, or a bow and arrow, or to construct a fort and palisade, will delight the heart of any normal boy; it will also train his eye and hand, and teach him history. The healthy girl will at the same time make a pair of moccasins, weave a small-size primitive blanket, draw pictures and maps, or paint a flag with no less delight and profit. In the more advanced classes the handwork may be continued in the construction of notebooks, the drawing of maps, the making of designs and models, and in the accurate mounting and labeling of relics for the history museum.

The following is a brief classified list of select books, any or all of which will be found of practical value to the teacher in correlating history with the subjects indicated.

GEOGRAPHY

- BACON: *Historic Pilgrimages in New England*; Silver, Burdett & Co., Boston.
- BOGART: *Economic History of the United States*; Longmans, Green & Co., New York.
- BRIGHAM: *Geographic Influences in American History*; Ginn & Co., Boston.
- COMAN: *Industrial History of the United States*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- FAIRBANKS: *The Western United States*; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.
- HOTCHKISS: *Representative Cities of the United States*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
- SEMPLER: *American History and its Geographic Conditions*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
- SEMPLER: *Influences of Geographic Environment*; Henry Holt & Co., New York.
- SHALER: *The Story of Our Continent*; Ginn & Co., Boston.
- SUTHERLAND: *The Teaching of Geography*; Scott, Foresman & Co., Chicago. — Particularly Chapter V: "The Relation of Geography to History."

LITERATURE

A. HISTORIES OF LITERATURE

- BROOKE: *English Literature*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- HALLECK: *American Literature*; American Book Co., New York.
- PANCOAST: *American Literature*; Henry Holt & Co., New York.
- TRENT: *American Literature*; D. Appleton & Co., New York.

B. COLLECTIONS OF HISTORICAL POEMS

- SOUTH: *Story of Our Country in Poetry and Song*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.
- STEVENSON: *Poems of American History*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston. — A comprehensive collection of great value.
- WILLIAMS: *Songs and Ballads of the American Revolution*; Hurst & Co., New York.
- WILLIAMS: *Songs of the Blue and the Gray*; Hurst & Co., New York.

C. HISTORICAL NOVELS

- ALLEN: *The Choir Invisible*. — Representing early Kentucky.
- CABLE: *Old Creole Days*.
- CARUTHERS: *Cavaliers of Virginia*. — Time about 1650.
- CHENEY: *A Peep at the Pilgrims in 1636*.
- CHURCHILL: *The Crisis*. — The Civil War.
- COOKE: *My Lady Pokahontas*.
- COOPER: *Water Witch*. — Refers to New York after 1664.
- EGGLESTON: *The Circuit Rider*. — Portrays social and religious life in the early Middle West.
- FORD: *Janice Meredith*. — Of the Revolutionary period.
- GARLAND: *A Little Norsk*. — Farm life in the West.
- HOUGH: *54-40 or Fight*. — Dispute over the Oregon boundary.
- JACKSON: *Ramona*. — Later Indian life in America.
- JOHNSTON: *Lewis Rand*. — Of Jefferson and Virginia.
- JUDD: *Margaret*. — Village life in New England a century ago.
- KENNEDY: *Horseshoe Robinson*. — Of the Southern Tories.
- LONGSTREET: *Georgia Scenes*. — Early times in Georgia.
- MITCHELL: *Hugh Wynne*. — Of the days of 1776.
- MURFREE: *Despot of Broomsedge Cove*. — Of Tennessee mountain life.
- PAGE: *Red Rock*. — Of Reconstruction days.
- SIMMS: *Lily and Totem*. — Of the French and Indians in Florida.

STOWE: *The Minister's Wooing*. — Of life at Newport a century ago.

THACKERAY: *The Virginians*. — Of the eighteenth century.

TIFFANY: *Pilgrims and Puritans*.

WALLACE: *The Fair God*. — Of the Aztecs.

WINTHROP: *John Brent*. — Among the Mormons.

WISTER: *The Virginian*. — Western ranch life.

D. CONVENIENT MANUALS

CHANNING: *Guide to the Study and Reading of American History*; with Hart and Turner; Ginn & Co., Boston. — Contains long lists of historical novels and poems, biographies, etc.

COX: *Literature in the Common Schools*; Little, Brown, & Co., Boston.

LANE: *American History in Literature*; with Hill; Ginn & Co., Boston.

McMURRY: *Special Method in History*; The Macmillan Co., New York. — Chapter IX contains extended classified lists of books for the student and teacher of American history.

PHILLIPS: *History and Literature in Grammar Grades*; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

WILSON: *History Reader for Elementary Schools*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

MUSIC AND ART

BAILEY: *Art Education*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

CAFFIN: *How to Study Pictures*; The Century Co., New York.

CAFFIN: *The Story of American Painting*; F. A. Stokes Co., New York.

DICKINSON: *The Study of the History of Music*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.

GARESCHÉ: *Art of the Ages*; Prang Educational Co.

HARTMANN: *A History of American Art*; L. C. Page & Co., Boston.

- ISHAM: *History of American Painting*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- WILLIAMS: *Lessons in Art*; Educational Publishing Co., New York. — Vol. I deals with architecture, Vol. II with sculpture, bronze work, and painting. Adapted to schools.
- WILSON: *Picture Study in Elementary Schools*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT

- ASHLEY: *The American Federal State*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- DUNN: *The Community and the Citizen*; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.
- FISKE: *Civil Government in the United States*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
- FLICKINGER: *Civil Government as Developed in the States and in the United States*; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.
- WOODBURN: *American History and Government*; Longmans, Green & Co., New York.

ETHICS

- COLEMAN: *Social Ethics*; Baker & Taylor Co., New York.
- DEWEY: *Ethics*; with Tufts; Henry Holt & Co., New York.
- DOLE: *The Ethics of Progress*; Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York.
- GULLIVER: *The Friendship of Nations*; Ginn & Co., Boston.
- MYERS: *History as Past Ethics*; Ginn & Co., Boston.

SOCIOLOGY

- DEALEY: *Sociology, Its Simpler Teachings and Applications*; Silver, Burdett & Co., Boston.
- GIDDINGS: *Descriptive and Historical Sociology*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

30 HOW TO TEACH AMERICAN HISTORY

- GREGG: *Syllabus of History Work in First Grade*; bulletin of State Normal School, Cape Girardeau, Mo.; March, 1911.
— Suggestive to the teacher in helping the little child to find himself in his home and community.
- ROSS: *Foundations of Sociology*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

ECONOMICS

- BURCH: *Elements of Economics*; with Nearing; The Macmillan Co., New York. — Has special reference to American conditions.
- ELY: *Outlines of Economics*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- JOHNSON: *Introduction to Economics*; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.
- SEAGER: *Economics, Briefer Course*; Henry Holt & Co., New York.

NATURAL SCIENCE

- BOYD: *Triumphs and Wonders of the 19th Century*; Wabash Publishing House, Chicago.
- JOHNSON: *Great Events by Famous Historians*; 20 volumes; The National Alumni.
- ROCHELEAU: *Great American Industries*; 4 volumes; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.
- WHITE: *The Warfare of Science with Theology*; D. Appleton & Co., New York.

HAND WORK

- BOWKER: *Busy Hands: Construction Work for Children*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.
- DOBBS: *Primary Handwork*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- DOPP: *Primitive Life Series*; Rand McNally & Co., Chicago.
- GILMAN: *Seat Work and Industrial Occupations*; with Williams; The Macmillan Co., New York.

- HOXIE: *Handwork for Kindergarten and Primary Schools*;
Milton Bradley Co., Springfield, Mass.
- LOVE: *Industrial Education; A Guide to Manual Training*;
E. L. Kellogg & Co., New York.
- ROUILLION: *The Economics of Manual Training*; The Derry-
Collard Co., New York.

CHAPTER IV

IMPORTANT AIMS IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

Not many years ago an instructor in one of our state normal schools, at the beginning of a course on the teaching of history, headed a blackboard outline as follows: "General Aims." Before he could go any further a member of the class eagerly inquired, "In what battle did General Aims fight?"

To guard against any such misconception here I shall not classify aims as general and special, but shall present them in a sort of illogical trichotomy: (1) Aims of the history teacher regarding himself; (2) his aims regarding his manner and method; (3) his aims regarding the results of his work. Otherwise, thus: (1) What the teacher should aim at for and in himself; (2) what he should aim at in his teaching; (3) what he should aim at through his teaching.

First, for himself and his work, the teacher must learn history. This gives him scholarship and rich resources in his craft. A teacher without resources in knowledge, in books, in many available sources of information and illustration, is like the capitalist without capital. For him, ready facts at hand, at

wit's end and tongue's end, are most desirable ; but wealth of resource is a *sine qua non*. If he does not know the fact, he must know where and how to find it, if it can be found.

Second, the teacher of history must like history. If he dislike it, he may not suffer so much himself, but woe to his class ! He should like it so well that he is enthusiastic over it ; then his class will find it delightful with him. Knowledge may or may not be communicated, but enthusiasm is a contagion, and it is bound to be communicated. If I must choose between the teacher with knowledge, but without enthusiasm, and the one with enthusiasm, but without much knowledge, let me follow the one with enthusiasm ; for he will lead me into the ways of knowledge. Enthusiasm in any subject is a guarantee of acquisition and accomplishment in that subject.

Third, the teacher of history, of anything, must have an appreciation of values. The scholar may know history, the dilettante may like history ; but the teacher must not only know history and love history, he must also perceive its bearing upon human life and human welfare. He must not exalt the worse for the better reasons, but he must exalt the real gods, whether the state worships them or not.

Fourth, the teacher of history, of anything, must develop power in himself, force of personality. Personality may be indefinable, but for the teacher, as

well as for the leader of men in any field, it is indispensable. Personality is doubtless a combination of powers, rather than any single power. Moreover, these powers likely belong to that class of powers that are born rather than made; yet every born power may be weakened by neglect or misuse, or strengthened by intelligent purpose and exercise. Again, the powers that make up personality are moral rather than intellectual; but they are none the less susceptible, for this reason, to either waste or growth.

What you know, my teacher, is worth much; what you can do is worth more; but what you are counts most of all, so far as real power is concerned. Mentality may make you master of a book; but you must have soul power to be a leader and inspirer of youth. You may be admired for brilliancy, but you will be loved for sympathy and sincerity. Wit may make you an entertainer, but personal worth must make you a teacher.

However difficult and precarious the task may be, I cannot refrain from making here the attempt to indicate what some of the things are that go to make up personality — a forceful personality such as the teacher should strive to develop. The following scheme is doubtless open to criticism, but it is submitted in the hope that it may aid some teacher in crystallizing his aims regarding himself.

Some of the things that go to make up personality :

1. Physical: (1) Appearance, (2) Presence, (3) Facial Expression
2. Intellectual: (1) Understanding, (2) Knowledge, (3) Wit
3. Moral: (1) Honesty, (2) Frankness, (3) Sincerity, (4) Sympathy, (5) Hopefulness, (6) Courage, (7) Fidelity, (8) Good Humor

Let us now consider some of the things that the history teacher should aim at in his teaching. Let us seek for the principles of his method.

The first is simplicity. Every great subject is involved within itself and related coördinately, superiorly, and subordinately, to many others. History is no exception. But the teacher who attempts to present the subject all at once, in its full complexity, is bound to fail; for he is attempting the impossible. If his pupils are children, he is approaching absurdity. He is like the mechanic who points his raw apprentice to a finished watch, bidding him to comprehend it, without first having studied it piece by piece and part by part. The student of logic may not understand a definition of the subject to begin with, but after he has studied the subject branch by branch and step by step he should be able to make a definition for himself. The student of medicine and surgery does not seize upon the human body entire, but dissects it, and studies it part by part, nerve by nerve, organ by organ, function by function. The geographer could never know a con-

continent if he looked upon it only as an adjusted and beautiful whole ; but he must follow the windings of each river, climb the slopes of each mountain, and list the plants of each valley ; then, having mastered each locality, one at a time, he begins to grasp relationships, and finally rises to an appreciation of the vast and varied entirety.

“ Divide and conquer ” is a good rule in war ; it is a necessary rule in science. Logical division, with attendant classification, makes science. It makes science and leads to art. Hence, the mechanic begins with the plane, the lever, and the pulley ; the logician begins with the word or the term or the sentence ; the physician begins with a bone or a muscle or a hinge ; the geographer begins with a brook or a stone or a tree.

The master of history must see history entire, and know it as a wonderful, beautiful whole ; but he must at the same time be wise enough and skillful enough and patient enough to break it into pieces, and then nicely choose the pieces, fitting them to his pupil's hands and to his own good purposes. The pieces are stories, biographies, scenes of primitive life ; actions, achievements, movements ; forms of government, civic virtues, social dangers ; health and disease in home and state ; triumphs and failures, and the reasons therefor. These are pieces, so to speak, to be seized and mastered, one by one ; but anon they are seen to be not so much pieces as parts —

parts of a complex and wonderful whole, bound together by multiple relationships, some obvious, some hidden, but all real and vital and rational. Sometime the pupil should be able to appreciate history in its complexity; but his master must lead him to that point of vantage through the converging paths of simplicity.

The second principle here is clearness. It is similar to the first, but not the same. Clearness is a natural consequent of simplicity, and goes a step or two beyond it. Simplicity comes of analysis — the untying of the bundle, and setting the treasures apart; clearness demands that the particular treasure to be viewed shall not stand behind another, and thus be hidden, or in a bad angle of light, and thus be colorless. To use another figure, simplicity results from the dissection of a body; but for clearness it may be necessary to bring each separate part near the eye, and perhaps to aid the eye with a microscope.

When the teacher of history presents one character or one scene or one topic at a time, he is proceeding upon the principle of simplicity; yet he may still fail utterly to make anything clear. If he hurry too much, or use ambiguous terms, or speak only in generalities, or fail to connect the yon and then with the here and now, his pupils may wonder at his learning, but despair at the mystery of it all. The brilliant teacher is in special danger of being obscure to his

class. It is all so clear and plain to him that he never dreams that it is all shadows to them; and so he races on, vainly imagining that they are following; or he launches upon a sublime vision and soars quite out of their sight. To be clear and plain to them, he must go somewhat slowly; he must repeat; he must use concrete terms and familiar illustrations; he must lead his class around the thing in view, that it may be seen at various angles; he must bring them to know and to feel its relation to their own time and their own interests.

The third principle to be emphasized here has just been suggested: it is concreteness, or vividness. This is really comprehended in clearness; but for the sake of simplicity and clearness it is now set somewhat apart and forward.

If I say, "Franklin was a scientist and a patriot," I may be correct; but when you say, "He snatched the lightning from the skies and the scepter from the tyrant's hand," you are certainly more concrete and vivid. Then the listener sees things, and hears not merely words; the thought assumes tangible form before him, and flashes upon his view. The weak teacher flounders about in the abstract, until both himself and his class are lost or bewildered. The strong teacher seizes the concrete and holds it up; his pupils see the thing and are glad. They follow him with delight and confidence. The gems are unlocked from their caskets, and set in the blazing sun.

Great facts and deeds are not only made visible, they are made to shine and burn and glow.

The fourth thing that the history teacher must aim at in his teaching has also been suggested under the head of clearness. It is vitality — the past functioning in the present. Some one has defined sociology as the live end of history, and history as the dead end of sociology. There is herein a sinister implication that history is not a live subject. This, however, is no more true than the common statement that Greek and Latin are dead languages. If we mean that they do not at present live in human speech, we are much in error; for even our English is largely Latin and Greek. No great language is dead, or can ever die; for if all the words were finally lost from the tongues of men, the masterpieces of its literature would still survive in story, in thought, and in sentiment. If Homer, for example, could be translated entirely out of the Greek language, he still would live in the literature of the world. If Sappho's very name were lost, we should still hear her sweet voice singing to us out of the shadows; and in the voices of those whose names we know it might be her melody, after all, that would be charming us most.

Doubtless Henry Sumner Maine exaggerated when he said, "Except the blind forces of nature, there is nothing that moves in the world to-day that is not Greek in origin"; yet we may be sure that the real

forces of the past are still living, moving forces. They always will be so ; they always must be so ; for, after all, the forces that really move society are comparatively few, and they are eternal. They are such things as desire for life, desire for liberty, ambition, love, selfishness, joy in achievement, and concern for the future. Since the same forces are at work in America to-day that were at work in Rome when Cæsar lived, the history of Cæsar's Rome is not a dead thing to us, or a thing that we cannot understand. Wherever in the past we find joy and sorrow, hope and despair, benevolence and service, the human soul enters in with a sense of fellowship, and the hearts of other ages throb against our own. The human race that is reading history to-day is the same human race that wrote history yesterday, only grown a little older and, let us hope, a little wiser. Especially on the institutional side, in such things as forms of government, church organization and teaching, social life and domestic values, history is ever proving its eternal vitality. The teacher of history must find these springs of life. They are indeed fountains of youth for every generation.

Once more, the teacher in his teaching must utilize the great principle of adaptation. The history teacher especially must do this ; for in history we must put ourselves in the place of others. It is often difficult to do this adequately — to put ourselves into another land, another age, with sympathy

and justice, or to bring a kinsman of the past into our company with grace and pleasure. Every process in method must be squared by the principle of adaptation. It demands wise selection of topics and materials; it determines the order and arrangement of courses; it applies in the preference given to textbooks; it meets the teacher at every turn, demanding of him knowledge, wisdom, tact, and skill.

Adaptation is the fundamental principle in the world useful, as in all the world beautiful. The three great kingdoms of matter — mineral, vegetable, and animal — act everywhere in marvelous adjustment. A similar coöperative harmony binds the kingdoms of mind in efficient unity. A world without adaptation in action, in form, in color, would be tiring and deadening. Suppose, for example, that every human figure were surmounted by the same face; that all hats and suits of clothes were made in advance, of the same fabric, the same color, the same design, the same size; suppose that in music a funeral dirge were in no wise different from a Christmas hymn; and suppose that my teacher of history is using the same method in high school to-day that he used in the fifth grade ten years ago!

The teacher must not only utilize the principle of adaptation, but must be sure to apply it at the right place. We have all heard the story of the despot with the iron bedstead. No objection to the material perhaps, for we prefer iron bedsteads to-day. No

objection, either, to the passion for fitness — we like snug fits to-day; but we do criticize the despot's judgment when he chose to do his cutting or stretching on the guest instead of on the bedstead. We say he had a good principle, but he applied it at the wrong place.

Having thus hastily reviewed, first, what the history teacher should aim at for and in himself and, second, what he should aim at in his teaching, let us now in the third place consider what he should aim at through his teaching.

Is it his salary? Is it a better position? Or is it a better school system? a better citizenship? a better country? a better patriotism? a better age to come?

Dr. Oscar I. Woodley said in a lecture a few years ago that he and his teachers had worked out the following statement of the history teacher's ultimate aim: —

“The essential purpose of history is to give an idea of individual and national worth, and the means by which they have been developed; so that the child knowing these may be persuaded to do the things and to live the life that will make for the welfare of himself and the state.”

As a general statement this is deemed so good that no change or comment is attempted; however, in an effort to aid the teacher in more specific terms, the following paragraphs are offered.

My teacher of history should increase my capacity for real happiness, and sharpen my appreciation for all things beautiful and for all persons noble and honorable. He should help me to see that righteousness exalts a nation, and that sin not only is a reproach to any people, but has also been the downfall of great empires. While keeping me away from the notion of the ancient East, that the citizen exists for the state, he should also defend me against the error of the modern West, that the state exists for the citizen. He should somehow get the ages face to face upon the golden balance, and show me that the obligations are mutual; that I as a citizen have something to give as well as something to get; and that no state can rise above the lifting arm of its average citizen.

My teacher of history should quicken my sympathies and moderate my judgments. He should make me more charitable — more judicial in my spirit, and less subject to impetuous impulse. He should stir up in me a love of truth, and get me to read history for the truth I may learn, rather than for the arguments I may find for my creed or my party.

My teacher of history should increase my efficiency as an active factor in a progressive age. He should enable me to see that great constructive statesmen like Hamilton and Madison have also been profound students of the past, and that theory and practice are, after all, but different phases of the same life.

He should open my eyes to the crag beacons as well
as to the harbor lights; for, while

“I doubt not through the ages one unceasing purpose
runs,
And the thoughts of men are widened with the process
of the suns,”

I still must know that

“Cursed be the social wants that sin against the strength
of youth!
Cursed be the social lies that warp us from the living
truth!”

He should teach me the great fact that the splendid
ideals of citizenship embodied in the movements
for world peace are “better” rather than “newer”;
that they are as old as eternity; and that they always
have been better, but are just now, in our glorious
day, appearing so upon a wider and brighter horizon.

SUMMARY

The first set of aims herein discussed contemplates
knowledge and character in the teacher — his resource
and personality; the second set contemplates his success
in imparting knowledge; the third set contemplates
a resulting strength of character and range of efficiency
in the pupil.

CHAPTER V

A SURVEY OF THE HISTORICAL FIELD

A DEGREE of orientation is always desirable, and it is usually helpful. Put down in a new country, we watch for the sunrise; we mark the trend of the mountain ranges; we note the course of the rivers; and we ask, "How far is it to the sea?" In Washington City we locate ourselves habitually by the Monument and the Capitol dome. In New York we are glad to catch a glimpse once in a while of the Metropolitan tower, the Woolworth Building, or the Statue of Liberty. And in Philadelphia, playing mathematics, we take Market Street and Broad Street as rectangular coördinates, Penn's statue surmounting City Hall as the elevated center, and proceed to mark out all sorts of loci, with Independence Hall, Carpenters Hall, the old Flag House, and Franklin's grave as some of the fixed points.

In history we cannot see the end or the beginning; neither can we get an open view clear across the field; but we can determine east and west; we can gauge somewhat the direction of study; we can look out upon what others have done, and forward upon what we ourselves may do. The teacher of history,

especially, should have some rather definite notions of place, relation, scope, and direction in the history field. This brief chapter, with the accompanying diagram, is intended to help the teacher and the student locate themselves.

We advocate a lifetime of growth in the understanding and appreciation of history, as well as a schooltime of specially arranged and skillfully directed study. We may begin to teach the child his kind of history in the first grade of school; we ought to begin it in the home, before he goes to school at all; we should continue our work, helping turn childhood into youth, and helping the youth become a man upon the stronger meat of sterner facts. At first the parent and teacher do nearly everything for the child; at last the man should be able to do nearly everything for himself. At first the¹ subject matter selected is simple and easy; at last, choosing for himself, the man may take what he finds, even though it be a truth so great and so revolutionary that it shift the center from the earth to the sun in the historical universe. At first the child has no book — he has something better, a teacher; at last the man not only has books, but he is also able to make other books, and to be that better thing, a teacher.

Wherever we live, we have the history of all the world before us and about us; but naturally and properly we study first what is nearest — nearest in place, if not in time. As already suggested, history,

like charity, should begin at home. Accordingly, those people who live in New York begin with the history of the New Netherlands; those who live in Michigan begin with the heroic journeys of Marquette and others who bore the lilies of France and taught the word of the Cross; and we who live in Virginia begin with the failures and triumphs of Raleigh and Smith and Pocahontas. Carrying this principle still farther, each child may begin with the history of his own people and his own neighborhood. This is the natural thing, the easy thing, the interesting thing. The child may not understand the people and the things far off in time and place, but he will take proper delight in knowing about his own family, his father's house, his town; and, in time, about his state, his country, his world.

Indian life and the pioneer life of the white people, in both of which children find a "happy hunting ground," may frequently be studied to best advantage in the child's own community. At the same time he gets occasional introductory glimpses into the greater world in the appropriate celebration of Thanksgiving, Washington's birthday, the Fourth of July, Christmas, and other holidays.

If the course is well laid out in advance, the American boy, coming to the last of the grades, will have pushed out to the wider historical bounds of his united country, without profitless or tedious retreading of beaten paths; yet all the while his main work has

been limited to his own United States. He has learned something of European history, particularly English history, and perhaps a good deal of older world history; but these have come in for the most part incidentally, to explain or illustrate or enforce what he has found here. With him American history has been the fundamental thing throughout, even though he has been able to comprehend it only in an elementary degree. He has had a good introduction for further study, if he continue in school; and some preparation for life as a citizen of his own country, if he must at once face the world.

In the high school the boy or girl may well begin with ancient history, and give special attention to Athens, Rome, and Jerusalem. The second year he may come on down the ages, following the star of destiny westward, peering after its gleam in the uncertain darkness, and rejoicing at its greater light when the age of confused uncertainties passes. Medieval history is rich in chivalry and romance, thrilling in tragedy and pathos, and illuminating, in spite of its shadows, to the student of modern institutions. The normal boy and girl will find the Middle Age a delightful period of study for the second year of high school.

The third year of high school may very properly be devoted chiefly to the history of Great Britain, our great mother land; and then in the fourth year the student, with maturing powers and amplified

resources of knowledge, may profitably take up again the history and government of the United States, his own country. He will then comprehend many things that puzzled him in the grades, and appreciate many things that before seemed to him without meaning.

In college the student of history may be allowed increasing privilege of election, and if he act wisely he will certainly shape his choices according to his plan of life. If his plan contemplate a university course, his elections will gradually converge toward a special field, unless he should be seeking only a rather vague general culture.

In reference to books of history, it will probably be best not to burden the child with a textbook before the fourth year in school. Much will depend upon the teacher. The better the teacher, the less the need for a book in the hands of the child. The teacher must of course know books and use books in the process of teaching the child; and if the child wishes to read, and can be provided with a suitable book, let him read; but do not burden him with a heavy book or discourage him with a dry book.

Beginning with the fourth grade, or thereabouts, the child should be able to use some books with profit and pleasure. In order that he may do so, the parent or the teacher must make a judicious selection of books for him, adapting them to his knowledge and capacity, as well as to the plan of the school

course. As he grows, the books should grow with him, still being nicely adapted to his powers and the teacher's plans. In most cases the error will be committed in selecting a book too difficult for the child. Let the teacher beware of supposing that because a book is elementary and simple to him it is necessarily so to the boy or girl in his class. But by the time the pupil has reached the third year of the high school he ought to be able to use almost any book, at least for supplementary work. The regular textbooks should still be carefully chosen for him.

An effort is made to show graphically in the appended outline a comprehensive scheme of the history field, *A*, regarding books, *B*, regarding schools and courses of study, as presented in the foregoing paragraphs.

The graded book lists incorporated in Chapter VII are intended to conform to this outline, particularly to the left-hand section of it, and to carry out somewhat in specific titles the recommendations herein made in general suggestions. The subject groups offered in the same chapter (VII) will be seen to conform similarly to that part of the outline which has reference to the course of study that may be given in the grades of the elementary school. The four-year course of study in history outlined and recommended for high schools in Chapter IX will also be found in close agreement with the scheme herewith indicated.

OUTLINE OF THE HISTORY FIELD

A. With Reference to Books.

B. With Reference to Schools and Courses.

<p>The Pre-textbook Stage.</p>	<p>{ 1</p>	<p>Grades of the Elementary School.</p>
<p>Textbooks in hands of teacher only.</p>	<p>{ 2 3 4</p>	<p>In American schools the work should be chiefly in American history. This should be fundamental throughout, with incidental reference to European history, particularly as it affects American history.</p>
<p>The Easy Textbook Stage.</p>	<p>{ 5 6</p>	<p></p>
<p>Textbooks being adjusted to the pupil's hands also.</p>	<p>{ 7 8</p>	<p></p>
	<p>{ 1</p>	<p>Years of the High School.</p>
	<p>{ 2</p>	<p>The course here should be general,</p>
	<p>{ 3</p>	<p>but still specially applied to America,</p>
	<p>{ 4</p>	<p>particularly in the 4th year.</p>
	<p>{</p>	<p>Years in College—Leading to the Bachelor's Degree.</p>
<p>The General Textbook Stage.</p>	<p>{ 1 2</p>	<p></p>
<p>The pupil becoming a master of books as well as of facts, methods, and principles.</p>	<p>{ 3 4</p>	<p>The course here should also be general, but may be directed particularly toward the specialties in prospect.</p>
	<p>{ 5</p>	<p>Years in University—Leading to the Master's and the Doctor's Degree.</p>
	<p>{ 6</p>	<p></p>
	<p>{ 7</p>	<p>The work here should be special and intensive.</p>
	<p>{ 8</p>	<p></p>

CHAPTER VI

THE PLACE AND TIME TO BEGIN THE STUDY OF HISTORY

WE are disposed to look upon all beginnings as more or less difficult; yet many — even many of the right sort — are very easy. It depends largely upon the spirit in which we start out, and whether we fall in with the natural order of things or not.

In teaching history the parent may begin at home, as soon as the child takes an interest in people and their doings. Yonder hangs an old picture upon the wall. It was painted long ago by the child's grandfather; and it represents an old tavern, with a group of men, some on horseback, before it. That picture has a story, a story that fits into the history of the community and the nation; and the child's ancestors helped to make that story. How natural and easy it is to stir up the child's intelligent interest in that picture and in that story.

Above the fireplace hangs an old sword. Out on the green lawn is a great tree. At the next corner of the street is an old stone house. In a dark corner of the barn is an old stagecoach. Each of these has its story — a story of action, of danger, of heroism —

that the child will eagerly hear from the lips of parent or teacher.

At school, even in the first grade, the resourceful teacher will find or make numberless subjects and occasions for stirring the child's historical curiosity. There are flags and pictures on the walls; there are many curious old relics in the museum; some child in the room has a meaningful name; another one has found a flint arrowhead or a tomahawk in a newly plowed field; there is a small stone marker, with some words on it, in the public square, and a tall white shaft of marble among the trees in the cemetery; and every month or two there comes along a historical holiday. Each of these presents an opportunity to the history teacher for beginning her work. They come into the way so easily and naturally that the child may enter the history path and travel long upon it before realizing that it presents any tasks at all. Along with the stories from real objects and persons at hand, the skillful teacher may readily introduce many others from the books.

In most graded and high schools the history work follows, and in every one it should follow, a carefully prepared outline covering every year, from the first to the last. Under such conditions the versatile teacher should find it easy to adjust herself to her particular place in the scheme. She may readily see what work has gone before, and what work will follow after, her own; and so will be able to set

forth upon her own work intelligently, and to give to it the proper scope and bearing.

In a poorly graded school, or a so-called graded school that has no scheme at all for the several subjects from year to year, the first step is to get a good scheme adopted. In a single-room, ungraded school the teacher has much freedom for her talents and judgment; yet even here nothing will perhaps aid her so much as adopting a comprehensive plan, dividing the possible history work into seven or eight parts, allotting to each part a session of school. The several classes may then be set into this scheme. If the teacher remain for a second or a third year at the same school, she will find her hard planning of the first year making easier working ever afterward. If she go elsewhere, she should leave to her successor a copy of her scheme, with memoranda indicating the location of each class in the scheme.

Probably it is in the normal schools that the teacher will find greatest difficulty in knowing just how and where to begin. Even if the same course in history and history teaching be required in all the secondary schools of any particular state, the normal school teacher will still have somewhat of the difficulty suggested, since it is hardly possible that all his pupils will have the same kind or the same degree of preparation. It would hardly be desirable to require so much uniformity throughout the high schools of any state in the teaching of any subject that a hundred

different pupils, from as many different schools, could be warranted in advance to fill exactly the same measure. Such a thing would not be possible if it were desirable.

Accordingly, when the history teacher in a normal school is confronted by a hundred or more young men and women from different sections and from different schools, with different kinds and degrees of training, with different habits and traditions, it may be well for him to take soundings a little in the harbor before launching out into the open seas.

If the first part of the normal school course be devoted to a review or a new view of subject matter as such, conditions are materially helped in various ways. If, on the other hand, the course from the beginning deal primarily with principles and methods, the teacher must start farther out at sea; but in either case a cordial relationship of mutual acquaintance should be established between the teacher and his class as soon as possible and as thoroughly as possible. The first few days of the session may well be devoted to such adjustment and to locating a few cardinal points. For such purposes the following plan has been found valuable.

Take the first four or five days for general introductory work, proceeding somewhat after this fashion:—

First day. — Enroll the class by having each member of it write down upon a card her full name and

home address, including town, county, and state. Cards of convenient size should be provided for this purpose by the teacher or by the school. If cards are provided by the school for registration in the class, but do not secure the student's home address, as indicated above, in form convenient for the teacher's use, the latter may well have a second set of cards filled out for his own desk. Thereby he may secure several advantages. In the first place, he will have the names of his pupils in convenient form for alphabetical or other arrangement. In the second place, he will have an illuminating index to the characters and habits of the different individuals in the exactness or inexactness, the neatness or lack of it, with which the cards are filled out. In the third place, he may classify his pupils as to locality, and thus not only gauge them with reference to their probable opportunities and training, but also determine in adequate measure some vantage grounds of appeal in getting at one with them.

The enrolling of the class, as suggested, will require only a few minutes; accordingly the greater part of the hour will remain for something else. There may be upon the blackboard, written there in advance, a list of, say, thirty-five easy, interesting, small books of history — preferably American history. This list of thirty-five may be divided into five equal groups labeled respectively A — D, E — H, I — M, N — R, S — Z. Say to the class: —

“You will find in the school library two or more copies of each of these books. They are all little books, easy and interesting. I want each one of you to get one of these books and read as much of it as you can during the next two or three days. Read it all if you can. Read it as a pleasure, not as a task; yet try to remember it well enough to be able to tell something about it afterwards if you should be given a chance to do so. All of you whose family names begin with A, B, C, or D may take a book in the first group; all whose names begin with E, F, G, or H may take one from the second group; and so on.”

Some minutes of the period will likely still remain. These may be devoted to any general or special talk that the teacher deems appropriate.

Second day. — The first half of the period may well be employed in securing from each pupil carefully written answers to the following questions:—

1. How long have you been studying history?
2. What book of history did you first read or study?
3. Name all the other books of history you have read or studied, so far as you can now recall them.
4. Do you like history, or not?
5. Give reasons why you like it, or why you do not like it.

The remainder of the hour may be used for another general or special lecture.

Third day. — Have the answers to the above questions carefully tabulated, and take the whole hour to go over them and discuss them with the class.

This will be an exercise of exceeding interest and profit to both teacher and pupils.

Fourth day. — Call on two or three members from each of the five groups to make brief reports on the books read. This will give the teacher opportunity to make some helpful remarks and to secure some helpful observations. It will add to the class's general stock of information. It will give the pupils reporting a sort of experience on their feet that should be valuable in their preparation for teaching. It will do much to promote acquaintance and a spirit of good fellowship in the class; and it will impress each pupil, at the outset, with the fact that part of one's business in preparing to teach is to get acquainted with books.

Fifth day. — The first half of the period may appropriately be given to a preliminary talk on notebooks and the methods of taking notes in class, in the library, or in other places. The second half may be used to explain the rules by which the work of the pupil is to be estimated: what values will be credited to regular attendance, to oral recitation, to written reports, to written tests, to deportment, and to general attitude toward the subject and the work. The first regular assignment in a textbook may be made at this time.

It is confidently believed that the first week may be spent upon introductory work of the sort indicated with greater profit than would ordinarily be realized by plunging at once into regular routine. But let

the plan outlined above, or any plan, be modified or supplanted altogether according to the judgment of each instructor, as he studies his own pupils and their needs. Skillful adaptation is always the chief thing to be sought in every plan, in every method, in every place. I would lay down only one ironclad rule: Be the master of every rule. Let no plan be so ironclad that it cannot be modified or discarded for improvement.

Common sense must always be a saving grace. The teacher who says, "There is just one way — my way" is several centuries out of his time and place. He would have done fairly well in medieval Europe, but old Egypt or China was his proper home. "Born after his time" should be inscribed over his door. The paths of progress lead elsewhere.¹

¹ In connection with the subject of this chapter attention is directed to an article in the *History Teacher's Magazine*, June, 1914: "Suggestions for Beginners in the Teaching of History," by F. E. Moyer.

CHAPTER VII

HISTORY IN THE GRADES

EVERY school should have a well-defined course mapped out for the work in history, assigning particular phases or portions of the work to the successive years, in a progressive series.

The advantages of such a plan are obvious. Thereby each teacher, according to her grade, or the grade of her class, can at once fit herself into the scheme, knowing where to begin and where to stop. She can determine in fair measure what preparation her pupils have had in the subject, and what they still lack. Needless duplication and identical repetition from year to year can be avoided. Having the field apportioned to a definite number of years, the several teachers should be able to cover it all in the allotted time; and, at the same time, since the work of each year is limited to a comparatively brief period, or to only a few subjects, each teacher, or the same teacher from year to year, has a chance to work more or less intensively. Extension is assured by the scheme as a whole, and intension is made possible by circumscribing a part of the field, year by year.

In most schools the teacher will doubtless find the

course of study for each year or each grade already mapped out, and her skill in consequence may be addressed chiefly to the task of adapting herself to the system and at the same time shaping her part of the system upon her ideals. In such cases the textbooks also, and the chief reference books, will probably be selected in advance for her. Nevertheless, she should have at least opinions of her own — them she should claim the right of shaping for herself. She should be able soon to reach a conclusion as to whether the plan of the course is a good one; whether the textbooks she is given are good in themselves; and whether they are adapted to the grade for which they are provided. She should be able thus not only to reach intelligent conclusions, but also to exert some influence in a proper and tactful way to get conditions changed if they ought to be changed.

In case the teacher is so unfortunate as to get into a school that has no course of study already outlined, she should be able to help matters by outlining a course at once. The lack may be her opportunity. As a possible aid in such a contingency, and as a means of expressing some opinions in tabular form, the following outline of history for the grades is submitted. Since it is for American schools it is devoted mainly to American history. European history and older world history are brought in rather sparingly, and to explain rather than to supplement American history. The author has no prejudice against the

history of the Old World, he loves it; but the history of our own country is so vast and so essential that we cannot afford to be sidetracked too much until we have in a fashion compassed it.

Moreover, it should be remembered that the child, in a good school or in a good home, is by no means wholly dependent upon the history course for knowledge of Old World treasures. Much Old World history is touched upon through his studies in literature, art, music, and geography, and should be so touched upon consciously and deliberately. Reader selections, biographical studies, Sunday school lessons, and such material frequently present a rich background in the Old World, and enhance the child's appreciation of distant lands and distant ages.

For the course in history for the grades, as presented below, the following distinctive features are claimed: —

1. An effort is made to unify the whole by a rather close adherence to the American field. Consequently, only a small amount of foreign matter is introduced, and such only as has an obvious bearing on American history.

2. By this close adherence to the American field it has been possible to introduce into the course certain important topics not usually given place in our history courses, for example, social and industrial topics like the following: The Story of Steam, The

Story of Iron, The Story of Cotton, Great American Missionaries, Great American Educators, and Great American Women.

3. The chronological order is completed in the seventh grade, thus to afford a practicable course for seven-grade schools, while the topics presented for the eighth grade are selected with a view to giving the most desirable work possible in that year for eight-grade schools.

4. In the book list following each grade an attempt is made to classify the books in groups corresponding to the several topics or groups in the outline; and from the fifth grade on two lists are given: one for the pupil, one for the teacher.

Grade I

SUBJECT

Group 1. Easy history stories, developed from local subjects.

2. Glimpses of Indian life, given during Indian Summer.

3. Thanksgiving stories, centering about Thanksgiving.

4. Christmas stories, centering about Christmas.

5. Stories from the life of Robert E. Lee, centering about Lee's birthday, January 19.

6. Stories from the life of Abraham Lincoln, centering about Lincoln's birthday, February 12.

7. Stories from the life of George Washington, centering about Washington's birthday, February 22. This series may be extended over a couple of months, and embrace many features of pioneer life and Indian life.

8. Stories from the life of Daniel Boone, continuing the portraiture of primitive life in America.

9. Various forms of construction work on sand tables, etc., may be employed throughout to give concreteness and attractiveness to the lessons.

10. Frequent excursions may be made to places of historical interest near the school.

References for the Teacher¹

Group 1

Local histories, old letters, old diaries, old buildings, relics, etc.

Group 2

BAYLISS: *Two Little Algonkin Lads*; Educational Publishing Co., New York.

BURTON: *The Story of the Indians of New England*; Silver, Burdett & Co., Boston.

DRAKE: *Indian History for Young Folks*; Harper & Bros., New York.

DRAKE: *The Making of New England*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.

HART: *Colonial Children*; Part IV; The Macmillan Co., New York.

JUDD: *Wigwam Stories*; Ginn & Co., Boston.

POWERS: *Stories of Indian Days*; Educational Publishing Co., New York.

Group 3

BRADFORD: *Journal*; Wright & Potter Printing Co., Boston.

BURNS: *A Complete Holiday Program for First Grade*; with Nunney; Educational Publishing Co., New York. — Con-

¹ Note that the groups of reference books for each grade are numbered to correspond to the subject-groups outlined for the grade.

tains fine material for Thanksgiving, Christmas, Lincoln's birthday, Washington's birthday, Arbor Day, Bird Day, Decoration Day, Mother's Day, etc.

DENTON: *Holiday Facts and Fancies*; Educational Publishing Co., New York. — An excellent manual for the early grades.

EARLE: *Customs and Fashions of Old New England*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.

TIFFANY: *Pilgrims and Puritans*; Ginn & Co., Boston.

Group 4

BALDWIN: *Old Stories of the East*; American Book Co., New York.

BENNETT: *The Bible Story, Retold for Young People*; with Adeney; The Macmillan Co., New York.

BENNETT: *The New Testament Story, Retold for Young People*; with Adeney; The Macmillan Co.

BIBLE: *Stories of Joseph, David, Ruth, Esther, Elizabeth, Mary, Zacharias, John the Baptist, the Bethlehem Shepherds, the Wise Men, and others.*

CHURCH: *Stories from the Bible*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

SANGSTER: *The Story Bible*; Moffat, Yard & Co., New York.

STEWART: *Tell Me a True Story* (Bible hero stories); F. H. Revell Co., New York.

STEWART: *The Shepherd of Us All* (Christ stories for children); F. H. Revell Co.

TAYLOR: *Bible Biographies*; Harper & Bros., New York. — Separate volumes on Daniel, David, Joseph, Ruth, and others.

WALLACE: *The Boyhood of Christ*; Harper & Bros., New York.

WALLACE: *The First Christmas*; Harper & Bros.

Group 5

CHANDLER: *Makers of Virginia History*; Silver, Burdett & Co., Boston.

MAGILL: *First Book in Virginia History*; pp. 162-172; J. P. Bell Co., Lynchburg, Va.

WILLIAMSON: *Life of Robert E. Lee for Children*; B. F. Johnson Co., Richmond, Va.

Group 6

ANONYMOUS: *The Story of Lincoln*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

BALDWIN: *Four Great Americans* (Washington, Franklin, Webster, Lincoln); American Book Co., New York.

NICHOLS: *Life of Abraham Lincoln*; Mast, Crowell & Kirkpatrick, Springfield, Ohio.

PUTNAM: *Children's Life of Abraham Lincoln*; A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

TAPPAN: *American Hero Stories*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

Group 7

ANONYMOUS: *The Story of Washington*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

COOKE: *Stories of the Old Dominion*; American Book Co., New York.

HART: *Camps and Firesides of the Revolution*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

MAGILL: *First Book in Virginia History*; pp. 56-152; J. P. Bell Co., Lynchburg, Va.

SCUDDER: *George Washington*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

WILSON: *George Washington*; Harper & Bros., New York.

Group 8

ANONYMOUS: *Stories of American Pioneers* (Boone, Lewis and Clark, Fremont, Carson); Educational Publishing Co., New York.

ANONYMOUS: *The Story of Daniel Boone*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

- CHANDLER: *Makers of American History*; with Chitwood; Silver, Burdett & Co., Boston.
- EGGLESTON: *Stories of Great Americans for Little Americans*; American Book Co., New York.
- McMURRY: *Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley* (including Boone and Lincoln); The Macmillan Co., New York.
- PERRY: *Four American Pioneers* (Boone, Crockett, Clark, Carson); with Beebe; American Book Co., New York.
- THWAITES: *Life of Daniel Boone*; D. Appleton & Co., New York.

The Perry Pictures, published at Malden, Mass., and other educational art series will be found of great value in many connections throughout the grades.

Grade II

SUBJECT

Group 1. The story of Columbus and the New World he found.

2. Stories and studies of primitive life, with special reference to the home county. These studies may embrace both the pioneer life of the white settlers and the habits of the particular Indian tribes by which they were surrounded.

3. Special studies of the home county's notable men and women.

4. Appropriate celebrations of Thanksgiving, Christmas, the birthdays of Lee, Lincoln, Washington, and others, including a few men and women of the home county.

5. Construction work, continued, according to developing skill and interest. This sort of work, as well as occasional excursions to historic places, should be kept up indefinitely, with proper adaptation.

Additional Reference Books for the Teacher

Group 1

- EGGLESTON: *First Book of American History*; American Book Co., New York.
- FISKE: *Discovery of America*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
- FOOTE: *Explorers and Founders of America*; with Skinner; American Book Co., New York.
- IRVING: *Life of Columbus*.
- LAWLER: *Columbus and Magellan*; Ginn & Co., Boston.
- NIDA: *Dawn of American History in Europe*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

Groups 2 and 3

Local histories, etc. — *The Guide to American History*, by Channing, Hart, and Turner, published by Ginn & Co., Boston, contains on pages 62–89 lists of local histories for every or nearly every state in the Union. By means of this directory, or a similar one, the teacher in most cases will be able to find some publication relating to his own particular section.

See an article entitled “An Experiment in Teaching Local History,” by Elizabeth B. White, in the *History Teacher's Magazine*, September, 1913.

Group 4

See List, Grade I: Group 3.

Suggestions and materials for various celebrations will be found in educational journals and in occasional publications of schools, societies, the Federal bureau of education, state departments of public instruction, etc.

It will be observed that no attempt is made to put forward dates and chronology, as such, in the early grades. Some dates will naturally be learned, and a few may be taught incidentally;

but the consecutive arrangement of facts, events, and movements, and the fixing of dates, will more properly come later. At this early stage the child is making personal acquaintances, gathering materials, and completing small circles. He is also finding his own powers.

Grade III

SUBJECT

Group 1. Stories of Queen Elizabeth, Sir Walter Raleigh, and Virginia Dare; John Smith and Pocahontas; Henry Hudson and the *Half Moon*; the Cavaliers and the Puritans; the Pilgrims and Priscilla Alden.

2. Stories and studies of the early history of the home state.

3. Special studies of the famous men and women of the home state.

4. Appropriate celebrations of state and national holidays.

5. The story of steam. Simple descriptions, with pictures, models, etc., of the early steamboats of Rumsey, Fitch, Fulton, and others; and of the early railroad cars drawn by horses, propelled by sails, and finally driven by steam.

Reference List ¹

Group 1

ANONYMOUS: *Stories of Old New England*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

BARLOW: *The Lost Colony*; with Howison; *Great Events by Famous Historians*, Vol. X, pp. 211-229.

BATES: *English History Told by English Poets*; with Coman; The Macmillan Co., New York.

BROWN: *The Story of Our English Grandfathers*; Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.

¹ See also preceding lists.

- CHURCH: *Stories from English History*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- CLEVELAND: *Henry Hudson Explores the Hudson River; Great Events*, Vol. XI, pp. 1-13.
- CONNOR: *The Story of the Old North State*; J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia.
- COOKE: *Virginia: A History of the People*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
- DRAKE: *Virginia and the Middle Colonies*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.
- FISKE: *Dutch and Quaker Colonies*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
- KENDALL: *Source Book of English History*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- LONGFELLOW: *The Courtship of Miles Standish*.
- TAPPAN: *England's Story*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
- TAPPAN: *Our Country's Story*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

Groups 2 and 3

ALABAMA

- BROWN: *History of Alabama for Use in Schools*; New York, 1900.

ARIZONA

- BANCROFT: *Arizona and New Mexico*; San Francisco, 1888.

ARKANSAS

- HALLUM: *Biographical and Pictorial History of Arkansas*; Albany, 1887.
- REYNOLDS: *Makers of Arkansas*; New York, 1905.

CALIFORNIA

- ANONYMOUS: *Heroes of California*; Little, Brown & Co., Boston.
- BANCROFT: *California*; San Francisco, 1890.

HITTELL: *History of California*; San Francisco, 1897.

SEXTON: *Stories of California*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

COLORADO

BANCROFT: *Nevada, Colorado, and Wyoming*; San Francisco, 1890.

PARSONS: *The Making of Colorado*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

CONNECTICUT

DWIGHT: *History of Connecticut*; New York, 1841.

HOLLISTER: *History of Connecticut*; Hartford, 1857.

SANFORD: *History of Connecticut*; Hartford, 1888.

DAKOTA

BATCHELDER: *Sketch of the History and Resources of Dakota Territory*; Yankton, 1870.

ROBINSON: *Brief History of South Dakota*; New York, 1905.

DELAWARE

CONRAD: *History of the State of Delaware*; Wilmington, 1908.

FERRIS: *History of the Original Settlements on the Delaware*; Wilmington, 1840.

SCHARF: *History of Delaware*; Philadelphia, 1888.

FLORIDA

FAIRBANKS: *Florida; its History and its Romance*; Jacksonville, 1898.

GEORGIA

JONES: *History of Georgia*; Boston, 1883.

McCALL: *History of Georgia*; Savannah, 1811.

PHILLIPS: *Georgia*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

STEVENS: *History of Georgia*; Philadelphia, 1859.

IDAHO

HAILEY: *History of Idaho*; Boise, 1910.

ILLINOIS

BOGCESS: *Settlement of Illinois*; Chicago, 1908.

BREESE: *Early History of Illinois*; Chicago, 1884.

MASON: *Chapters from Illinois History*; Chicago, 1901.

MATHER: *The Making of Illinois*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

INDIANA

COCKRUM: *Pioneer History of Indiana*; Oakland City, 1907.

LEVERING: *Historic Indiana*; New York, 1909.

IOWA

GUE: *History of Iowa from the Earliest Times*; New York, 1903.

HARSHA: *The Story of Iowa*; Omaha, 1890.

SABIN: *The Making of Iowa*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

SHAMBAUGH: *Iowa Biographical Series*; Iowa City, 1907.

KANSAS

HOLLOWAY: *History of Kansas*; Lafayette, Ind., 1868.

SPRING: *Kansas*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

WILDER: *Annals of Kansas*; Topeka, 1886.

KENTUCKY

DANDRIDGE: *A Kentucky Pioneer*; The Michie Co., Charlottesville, Va.

DRAKE: *Pioneer Life in Kentucky*; Cincinnati, 1870.

SMITH: *History of Kentucky*; Louisville, 1886.

LOUISIANA

FORTIER: *History of Louisiana*; New York, 1904.

MAGRUDER: *History of Louisiana*; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

THOMPSON: *The Story of Louisiana*; Boston, 1889.

MAINE

VARNEY: *Brief History of Maine*; Portland, 1888.

WILLIAMSON: *History of the State of Maine*; Hallowell, 1832.

MARYLAND

BOZMAN: *History of Maryland*; Baltimore, 1837.

GAMBRILL: *Leading Events of Maryland History*; Ginn & Co., Boston.

SCHARF: *History of Maryland*; Baltimore, 1879.

WELSH: *Colonial Days*; Educational Publishing Co., New York.

— Deals with Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia. Adapted to 3d or 4th grade.

MASSACHUSETTS

BARRY: *History of Massachusetts*; Boston, 1857.

BRADFORD: *History of Massachusetts*; Boston, 1829.

GOODWIN: *The Pilgrim Republic*; Boston, 1888.

LODGE: *Boston*; New York, 1891.

MICHIGAN

COOK: *Michigan: Its History and Government*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

HOLLANDS: *When Michigan was New*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

LANMAN: *History of Michigan*; New York, 1839.

SHELDON: *Early History of Michigan*; New York, 1856.

MINNESOTA

FOLWELL: *Minnesota, the North Star State*; Boston, 1908.

FORSTER: *Stories of Minnesota*; Educational Publishing Co., New York.

NEILL: *History of Minnesota*; Minneapolis, 1883.

MISSISSIPPI

LOWRY: *History of Mississippi*; with McCardle; Jackson, 1891.

PICKETT: *History of Alabama, Georgia, and Mississippi*; Charleston, 1851.

MISSOURI

DAVIS: *Illustrated History of Missouri*; with Durrie; St. Louis, 1876.

SHEPARD: *Early History of St. Louis and Missouri*; St. Louis, 1870.

MONTANA

JUDSON: *Montana*; Chicago, 1909.

MILLER: *Illustrated History of the State of Montana*; Chicago, 1894.

NEBRASKA

JOHNSON: *History of Nebraska*; Omaha, 1880.

SHELDON: *History and Stories of Nebraska*; University Publishing Co., Chicago, 1913.

NEVADA

BANCROFT: *Nevada, Colorado, and Wyoming*; San Francisco, 1890.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

McCLINTOCK: *History of New Hampshire*; Boston, 1888.

SANBORN: *New Hampshire*; Boston, 1907.

NEW JERSEY

GORDON: *History of New Jersey*; Trenton, 1834.

MURRAY: *Notes, Historical and Biographical, concerning Elizabeth-Town*; Elizabethtown, 1844.

SCOTT: *New Jersey*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

NEW MEXICO

HAINES: *History of New Mexico*; New York, 1891.

LADD: *The Story of New Mexico*; Boston, 1892.

TWITCHELL: *History of New Mexico*; Cedar Rapids, 1910.

NEW YORK

- BROOKS: *The Story of New York*; Boston, 1888.
LOSSING: *The Hudson, from the Wilderness to the Sea*; New York, 1866.
LOVERING: *Stories of New York*; Educational Publishing Co., New York.
PALMER: *History of Lake Champlain*; Albany, 1866.
TODD: *Story of the City of New York*; New York, 1890.
WILLIAMS: *Stories from Early New York History*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.

NORTH CAROLINA

- ALLEN: *North Carolina History Stories*; B. F. Johnson Co., Richmond, Va.
ASHE: *History of North Carolina*; Greensboro, 1908.

OHIO

- BLACK: *The Story of Ohio*; Boston, 1888.
FERNOW: *The Ohio Valley in Colonial Days*; Albany, 1890.
MILLER: *Cincinnati's Beginnings*; Cincinnati, 1880.

OKLAHOMA

- ABBOTT: *History and Civics of Oklahoma*; Ginn & Co., Boston.
HILL: *History of the State of Oklahoma*; Chicago, 1908.

OREGON

- GRAY: *History of Oregon*; Portland, 1870.
LYMAN: *History of Oregon*; New York, 1903.
WILKES: *History of Oregon*; New York, 1845.

PENNSYLVANIA

- CORNELL: *History of Pennsylvania*; Philadelphia, 1876.
EGLE: *Illustrated History of Pennsylvania*; Harrisburg, 1876.

SCHARF: *History of Philadelphia*; with Westcott; Philadelphia, 1884.

THOMAS: *History of Pennsylvania*; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

RHODE ISLAND

BRIGHAM: *History of the State of Rhode Island*; Boston, 1902.

EATON: *Roger Williams, Founder of Providence; With Suggestions for Study in Schools*; with Craig; Dept. of Education, State of Rhode Island, 1908.

GREENE: *Short History of Rhode Island*; Providence, 1877.

WEEDEN: *Early Rhode Island*; New York, 1910.

SOUTH CAROLINA

RAMSAY: *History of South Carolina*; Charleston, 1809.

RAVENEL: *Charleston, the Place and the People*; New York, 1906.

SIMMS: *History of South Carolina*; Charleston, 1840.

TENNESSEE

BOND: *Old Tales Retold; or, Perils and Adventures of Tennessee Pioneers*; Smith & Lamar, Nashville.

KARNS: *Tennessee History Stories*; B. F. Johnson Co., Richmond, Va., 1904.

MCGEE: *A History of Tennessee*; American Book Co., New York, 1899.

PHELAN: *School History of Tennessee*; E. H. Butler & Co., Philadelphia, 1889.

TURNER: *Life of John Sevier*; The Neale Co., New York, 1910.

TEXAS

BROWN: *History of Texas*; St. Louis, 1893.

FOOTE: *Texas and the Texans*; Philadelphia, 1841.

YOAKUM: *History of Texas*; New York, 1856.

UTAH

- BANCROFT: *Utah*; San Francisco, 1890.
WHITNEY: *History of Utah*; Salt Lake City, 1893.

VERMONT

- COLLINS: *History of Vermont*; Ginn & Co., Boston.
HALL: *History of Vermont*; Albany, 1868.
HEATON: *The Story of Vermont*; Boston, 1889.

VIRGINIA

- CHANDLER: *Makers of Virginia History*; Silver, Burdett & Co., New York.
HOWE: *Historical Collections of Virginia*; Charleston, S.C., 1846.
KERCHEVAL: *A History of the Valley of Virginia*; J. H. Grabill, Woodstock, Va., 1902.
MAURY: *Young People's History of Virginia*; B. F. Johnson Co., Richmond, 1904.
SYDENSTRICKER: *School History of Virginia*; with Burger; Dulaney-Boatwright Co., Lynchburg.
WERTENBAKER: *Virginia Under the Stuarts*; Princeton University Press, 1914.

WASHINGTON

- MEANY: *History of the State of Washington*; New York, 1910.
MEEKER: *Pioneer Reminiscences of Puget Sound*; Seattle, 1905.

WEST VIRGINIA

- FAST: *The History and Government of West Virginia*; with Maxwell; Morgantown, 1901.
LEWIS: *History and Government of West Virginia*; New York, 1904.

WISCONSIN

SMITH: *The Making of Wisconsin*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

THWAITES: *The Story of Wisconsin*; Boston, 1890.

TUTTLE: *Illustrated History of Wisconsin*; Boston, 1875.

WYOMING

COUTANT: *History of Wyoming*; Laramie, 1899.

Group 4

DENTON: *Holiday Facts and Fancies*; Educational Publishing Co., New York.

TITTLE: *Colonial Holidays*.

Group 5

ADAMS: *Railroads, their Origin and Problems*; D. Appleton & Co., New York.

ANONYMOUS: *Heroes of Industry* (a story of steam); A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

ARAGO: *Watt Improves the Steam Engine*; *Great Events*, Vol. XIII, pp. 302-312.

BOGART: *Economic History of the United States*; Longmans, Green & Co., New York.

BUCKMAN: *Old Steamboat Days on the Hudson*.

COMAN: *Industrial History of the United States*; the Macmillan Co., New York.

DANDRIDGE: *Historic Shepherdstown* (home of Rumsey); The Michie Co., Charlottesville, Va.

FLINT: *Railroads of the United States, their History, etc.*; Philadelphia, 1868.

MAHAN: *From Sail to Steam*.

MORRISON: *History of American Steam Navigation*; New York, 1903.

PERRY: *Four American Inventors* (Fulton, Whitney, Morse, Edison); American Book Co., New York.

ROCHELEAU: *Great American Industries: Transportation*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

SUTCLIFFE: *Robert Fulton and the Clermont*.

WRIGHT: *Children's Stories of American Progress*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.

All of the book lists herein submitted are selective rather than exhaustive; yet it is not necessary, of course, for every teacher to have all the books that are named.

The Educational Publishing Company, 18 E. 17th Street, New York, has a series of biographical classics, dealing chiefly with famous Americans, from which many helpful selections may be made for the 3d, 4th, and 5th grades. Another most excellent and helpful series of biographies is published by the Macmillan Company, 66 Fifth Avenue, New York.

Grade IV

SUBJECT

Group 1. Easy biographies of De Soto, Balboa, and Cortez, Champlain, La Salle, and Marquette, Peter Stuyvesant, Roger Williams, William Penn, and James Oglethorpe.

2. Characteristics and habits of the Spanish, French, Dutch, and English, as illustrated in the foregoing and other representatives.

3. The romance and tragedy of the seas. Studies of the explorations and treasure-hunts of the British, Spanish, Dutch, and Portuguese sea captains, such as Magellan, Drake, Fro-bisher, and others.

4. Appropriate celebrations of great days and great events, particularly the discovery of the Pacific (September 26), discovery of America (October 12), Plymouth Rock Day (Decem-

ber 21), Easter, Jamestown Day (May 13), and Peace Day (May 18).

5. The story of iron. Simple descriptions, with pictures, drawings, etc., of iron ore, mining operations, smelting, forging, casting, etc.; an explanation of the values and uses of iron; and, in connection, something about the discovery of fire and its importance to mankind, together with descriptions of the stone, bone, and copper implements that preceded the use of iron.

Book List

Groups 1 and 2

- ANONYMOUS: *Father Marquette*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.
- ANONYMOUS: *How Canada was Discovered and Settled*; Flanagan Co.
- ANONYMOUS: *The Story of La Salle*; Flanagan Co.
- BALDWIN: *Discovery of the Old Northwest*; American Book Co., New York.
- DAVIS: *Stories of the United States for Youngest Readers*; Educational Publishing Co., New York.
- FOOTE: *Explorers and Founders of America*; with Skinner; American Book Co., New York.
- KING: *De Soto and His Men in the Land of Florida*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- MITCHELL: *Cortes, Montezuma, and Mexico*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.
- OBER: *Biographies of De Soto, Balboa, Cortes, and others*; Harper & Bros., New York.
- PRATT: *De Soto, Marquette, and La Salle*; Educational Publishing Co., New York.
- TAPPAN: *American Hero Stories*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
- WINTERBURN: *The Spanish in the Southwest*; American Book Co., New York.

In Great Events by Famous Historians:

ELLIS: *Penn's Founding of Philadelphia*; Vol. XII, pp. 153-163.

GARNEAU: *La Salle Names Louisiana*; Vol. XII, pp. 108-124.

MILES: *Champlain in Canada*; Vol. X, pp. 366-384.

STEVENS: *Oglethorpe's Settlement of Georgia*; Vol. XIII, pp. 44-56.

VALENTINE: *The Dutch Settlement of New York*; Vol. XI, pp. 44-49.

Group 3

BEST: *Search for the Northwest Passage by Frobisher; Great Events*, Vol. X, pp. 156-162.

CORBETT: *Drake Captures Cartagena; Great Events*, Vol. X, pp. 230-250.

GORDY: *Stories of American Explorers*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.

LAUT: *Vikings of the Pacific*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

McMURRY: *Pioneers on Land and Sea*; The Macmillan Co.

OBER: *Biographies of Columbus, Vespuccius, the Cabots, Magellan, and Raleigh*; Harper & Bros., New York.

PRATT: *American History Stories*; Vol. I; Educational Publishing Co., New York.

SHAW: *Discoverers and Explorers*; American Book Co., New York.

WINSOR: *Sir Francis Drake*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

Group 4

Material for the celebration of Peace Day may be obtained from the American School Peace League, Mrs. F. F. Andrews, Secretary, 405 Marlboro Street, Boston. The *Teachers' Magazine*, May, 1914, contains an attractive program for Peace Day for primary and intermediate grades. Appropriate exercises for other anniversaries may easily be arranged by the teacher from collections of stories, poems, and music.

Group 5

BISHOP: *History of American Manufactures*; Philadelphia, 1868.

BRIGHAM: *Commercial Geography*, pp. 58-78; Ginn & Co., Boston.

CHASE: *Stories of Industry*; Vol. I; with Clow; Educational Publishing Co., New York.

ROCHELEAU: *Great American Industries: Minerals*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

SWANK: *Iron in All Ages*; Philadelphia, 1892.

SWANK: *Progressive Pennsylvania*; J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. — Contains much of interest about steamboats, railroads, and iron industries.

Some of the books listed in Groups 1 and 2 and in Group 3 may be put into the hands of the pupils. "Stories of Industry" and "Great American Industries," in Group 5, are also of comparatively easy grade.

Grade V

The Beginning of a Chronological Order

SUBJECT

Group 1. European background of beginnings in America. — To be studied from the opening of the session to the Christmas recess.

2. The thirteen colonies that became the United States. — Historical period, from the beginnings in America to the Stamp Act, 1765; study period, from January 1 to about May 1.

3. The story of cotton, following logically the story of steam and the story of iron in Grades III and IV, respectively.

4. Appropriate celebrations throughout the year.

Reference List

A. For the Pupil

Group 1

- BOURNE: *Introductory American History*; with Benton; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.
- GORDY: *American Beginnings in Europe*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.
- HARDING: *The Story of Europe*; Scott, Foresman & Co., Chicago.
- NIDA: *The Dawn of American History in Europe*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- POWELL: *History of the United States for Beginners*; The Macmillan Co.

The books named above are perhaps best adapted to the 6th grade, but they may be used here with a competent teacher. The chronological order is begun in the 5th grade in order to make a course that is practicable for schools having only seven grades as well as for those having eight grades.

Group 2

- GORDY: *Stories of Early American History*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.
- HART: *Colonial Children*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- HODGDON: *First Course in American History*; Book I; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.
- PERRY: *American History: First Book*; with Price; American Book Co., New York.
- PRATT: *America's Story for America's Children*; Vols. I, II, III, and IV; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.
- SWEET: *Grandfather's Tales of Colonial Days*; McLoughlin Bros., New York.
- TAPPAN: *Our Country's Story*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

Group 3

- CHASE: *Stories of Industry*; Vol. II; with Clow; Educational Publishing Co., New York.
- ROCHELEAU: *Great American Industries: Products of the Soil*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.
- STONE: *Days and Deeds a Hundred Years Ago*; with Fickett; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

B. For the Teacher

Group 1

- CHENEY: *European Background of American History*; Harper & Bros., New York.
- HOWARD: *Four Great Pathfinders* (Marco Polo, Columbus, Da Gama, Magellan); Educational Publishing Co., New York.
- MYERS: *The Modern Age*; Ginn & Co., Boston.
- OGG: *Source Book of Mediæval History*; American Book Co., New York.
- RENOUF: *Outlines of General History*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- ROBINSON: *History of Western Europe*; Ginn & Co., Boston.
- WEST: *Modern History*; Allyn & Bacon, Boston.

Group 2

- CHANNING: *Story of the Great Lakes*; with Lansing; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- FISHER: *The Colonial Era*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.
- FISKE: *The Discovery of America*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
- HART: *American History Told by Contemporaries*; Vols. I and II; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- HART: *Source-Book of American History*; The Macmillan Co.
- OSGOOD: *American Colonies in the Seventeenth Century*; The Macmillan Co.

PARKMAN: *Pioneers of New France*; Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

PARKMAN: *A Struggle for a Continent*; Little, Brown & Co.

THWAITES: *The Colonies*; Longmans, Green & Co., New York.

Group 3

BRIGHAM: *Commercial Geography*; pp. 22-39; Ginn & Co., Boston.

BROOKS: *The Story of Cotton*; Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago.

DABNEY: *The Cotton Gin and the Cotton Industry*; with Handy and Olmsted; *Great Events*, Vol. XIV, pp. 271-294.

HENDERSON: *Cotton Manufacture Developed*; *Great Events*, Vol. XIII, pp. 341-346.

Grade VI

SUBJECT

Group 1. A review of the period from the beginnings in America to the Stamp Act, 1765.

2. The struggle of the English colonies with the mother country, and the winning of political independence, 1765-1783. — Study period for topics 1 and 2, from the opening of the session to Christmas.

3. Formation of the Federal Union and the winning of commercial independence, 1777-1815.

4. Some great American Indians: for example, King Philip, Pontiac, Tecumseh, Osceola.

5. Appropriate celebrations throughout the year.

Reference List

A. For the Pupil

Groups 1, 2, and 3

BLAISDELL: *The Story of American History*; Ginn & Co., Boston.

BURTON: *Lafayette, The Friend of American Liberty*; American Book Co., New York.

- CODD: *The Story of Lafayette*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.
- EARLE: *Child Life in Colonial Days*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- GORDY: *Elementary History of the United States*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.
- GUERBER: *Story of the Thirteen Colonies*; American Book Co., New York.
- GUERBER: *Story of the Great Republic*; American Book Co.
- HART: *Camps and Firesides of the Revolution*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- HODGDON: *First Course in American History*; Book II; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.
- MONTGOMERY: *Beginner's American History*; Ginn & Co., Boston.
- MOORE: *From Colony to Commonwealth*; Ginn & Co.
- PRATT: *American History Stories*; Vol. II; Educational Publishing Co., New York.
- PRATT: *Foundations of the Republic*; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.
- STONE: *Everyday Life in the Colonies*; with Fickett; D. C. Heath & Co.
- WHITE: *Beginner's History of the United States*; American Book Co., New York.

Group 4

- GORDY: *Colonial Days*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York. — Contains chapters on King Philip and Pontiac.
- HULST: *Indian Sketches*; Longmans, Green & Co., New York.
- STARR: *American Indians*; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.
- WHITNEY: *Four American Indians* (King Philip, Pontiac, Tecumseh, Osceola); with Perry; American Book Co., New York.

*B. For the Teacher***Groups 1, 2, and 3**

CHANNING: *A Student's History of the United States*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

EARLE: *Home Life in Colonial Days*; The Macmillan Co.

FISKE: *The Critical Period of American History*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

HART: *American History Told by Contemporaries*; Vol. III; The Macmillan Co., New York.

HART: *Formation of the Union*; Longmans, Green & Co., New York.

PARKMAN: *Montcalm and Wolfe*; Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

PARKMAN: *The Struggle for a Continent*; Little, Brown & Co.

SLOANE: *The French War and the Revolution*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.

WALKER: *The Making of the Nation*; Chas. Scribner's Sons.

Group 4

HILDRETH: *King Philip's War; Great Events*, Vol. XII, pp. 125-137.

PARKMAN: *Conspiracy of Pontiac*; Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

RANDALL: *Conspiracy of Pontiac; Great Events*, Vol. XIII, pp. 267-288.

Grade VII

SUBJECT

- Group 1. Geographical and industrial expansion, 1815-1860.
2. Contemporary growth in literature. — Study topics 1 and 2 till Christmas.
 3. The Civil War: causes, incidents, and results.
 4. Reconstruction.
 5. The latest forty years.

6. Some great American statesmen.

7. Appropriate celebrations throughout the year.

The author is thoroughly in favor of eight grades in the elementary schools; but inasmuch as many schools have only seven grades he has endeavored to make this outline practicable for them also by ending the chronological order in the seventh grade, as above.

Reference List

A. For the Pupil

Groups 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5

- BATES: *American Literature*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- CODY: *Four American Poets* (Bryant, Whittier, Longfellow, Holmes); American Book Co., New York.
- CODY: *Four Famous American Writers* (Irving, Poe, Lowell, Taylor); American Book Co.
- DICKSON: *American History for Grammar Schools*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- FORMAN: *Stories of Useful Inventions*; The Century Co., New York.
- GORDY: *A History of the United States for Schools*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.
- HALLECK: *History of American Literature*; American Book Co., New York.
- HITCHCOCK: *The Louisiana Purchase and Building of the West*; Ginn & Co., Boston.
- KINGSLEY: *Four American Explorers* (Lewis and Clark, Fremont, Kane); American Book Co., New York.
- LAWLER: *A Primary History of the United States*; Ginn & Co., Boston.
- MACE: *A Primary History: Stories of Heroism*; Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago.

- McLAUGHLIN: *A History of the United States for Schools*; with Van Tyne; D. Appleton & Co., New York.
- MACOMBER: *Stories of Our Authors*; Educational Publishing Co., New York.
- MOORE: *An Industrial History of the American People*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- PERRY: *Four American Inventors* (Fulton, Whitney, Morse, Edison); American Book Co., New York.
- RILEY: *Our Republic*; with Chandler and Hamilton; Riley & Chandler, Richmond, Va.
- ROCHELEAU: *Great American Industries: Manufactures*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.
- ROOSEVELT: *The Winning of the West*; Current Literature Publishing Co., New York.
- SEARS: *American Literature in Its Colonial and National Periods*; Little, Brown & Co., Boston.
- SWEET: *Stories of the Blue and the Gray*; McLoughlin Bros., New York.
- THOMPSON: *A History of the United States*; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.
- TURPIN: *A Short History of the American People*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- WRIGHT: *Children's Stories of American Progress*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.

Group 6

- ANONYMOUS: *The Story of Franklin*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.
- BALDWIN: *Four Great Americans* (Washington, Franklin, Webster, Lincoln); American Book Co., New York.
- BURTON: *Four American Patriots* (Henry, Hamilton, Jackson, Grant); American Book Co.
- CAMPBELL: *Famous American Statesmen*; Educational Publishing Co., New York.

- CHANDLER: *Makers of American History*; with Chitwood; Silver, Burdett & Co., Boston.
- GORDY: *American Leaders and Heroes*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.
- HALL: *Lives of the Presidents*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.
- SPARK: *Men Who Made the Nation*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

B. For the Teacher

Groups 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5

- BOGART: *Economic History of the United States*; Longmans, Green & Co., New York.
- BURGESS: *The Civil War and the Constitution*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.
- BURTON: *Literary Leaders of America*; Chas. Scribner's Sons.
- CHADWICK: *Causes of the Civil War*; Harper & Bros., New York.
- COMAN: *Economic Beginnings of the Far West*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- COMAN: *Industrial History of the United States*; The Macmillan Co.
- FLEMING: *History of Reconstruction*; Arthur H. Clark Co., Cleveland, Ohio.
- FORMAN: *Advanced American History*; The Century Co., New York.
- GREGG: *Commerce of the Prairies*; Arthur H. Clark Co., Cleveland, Ohio.
- HART: *American History Told by Contemporaries*; Vol. IV; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- HULBERT: *The Cumberland Road*; Arthur H. Clark Co., Cleveland, Ohio.
- HULBERT: *The Great American Canals*; Arthur H. Clark Co.
- LAUT: *Pathfinders of the West*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- McELROY: *The Winning of the Far West*; G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.

- MEANY: *United States History for Schools*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- MIMS: *Southern Prose and Poetry*; with Payne; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.
- MUNFORD: *Virginia's Attitude toward Slavery and Secession*; Longmans, Green & Co., New York.
- OGG: *Opening of the Mississippi*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- PANCOAST: *Introduction to American Literature*; Henry Holt & Co., New York.
- SACHSE: *Wayside Inns between Philadelphia and Lancaster*; pp. 1-109, Vol. 22, Pennsylvania-German Society Proceedings.
- STEDMAN: *Poets of America*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
- TURNER: *Rise of the New West*; Harper & Bros., New York.
- WILSON: *Division and Reunion: 1829-1889*; Longmans, Green & Co., New York.
- WRIGHT: *Industrial Evolution of the United States*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.

Group 6

- American Statesmen Series; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
- BASSETT: *The Federalist System*; Harper & Bros., New York.
- CHANNING: *The Jeffersonian System*; Harper & Bros.
- DODD: *Statesmen of the Old South*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- HAPGOOD: *George Washington*; The Macmillan Co.
- JERVEY; *Robert Hayne and His Times*; The Macmillan Co.
- MCCONNELL: *Southern Orators: Speeches and Orations*; The Macmillan Co.
- TARBELL: *Abraham Lincoln*; The Macmillan Co.

Grade VIII

SUBJECT

Group 1. Social and industrial life in colonial America.

2. The American national spirit, its character and its growth; as shown in Franklin's Albany plan of union, the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation, the Federal Constitution, the Northwest Ordinance, the Monroe Doctrine, etc. — Read the several documents, note their historical significance and the stages of progress in national spirit and political organization that they mark, making a somewhat extended study of the men who took the lead in framing these documents.

3. Great American missionaries: Foreigners like Las Casas, Eliot, Hennepin, and Asbury, who labored in America; and Americans like Mills and Judson, who labored abroad.

4. Great American educators: Mann, Hopkins, Page, Barnard, Wickersham, Curry, Knapp, and others.

5. Great American women: Mary Washington, Dolly Madison, Dorothy Dix, Clara Barton, Frances Willard, Ellen Richards, Jane Addams, and others.

Reference List

A. For the Pupil

Group 1

ASHLEY: *American Colonial History*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

BOURNE: *A History of the United States*; with Benton; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

EARLE: *Life in Colonial Days*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

EARLE: *Colonial Days in Old New York*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.

GORDY: *Colonial Days*; Chas. Scribner's Sons.

HART: *How Our Grandfathers Lived*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

HART: *Source-Book of American History*; The Macmillan Co.

MAURY: *History of Virginia*; pp. 94-121; B. F. Johnson Co., Richmond, Va.

PRATT: *Stories of Colonial Children*; Educational Publishing Co., New York.

SWEET: *Grandmamma's Tales of Colonial Days*; McLoughlin Bros., New York.

WHARTON: *Through Colonial Doorways*; J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia.

Group 2

ASHLEY: *American History*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

CHANNING: *Student's History of the United States*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

FISKE: *Civil Government in the United States*; pp. 146-321; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

FISKE: *How the United States Became a Nation*; Ginn & Co., Boston.

MACDONALD: *Documentary Source Book of American History*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

STEPHENSON: *An American History*; Ginn & Co., Boston.

Group 3

ANONYMOUS: *Old Franciscan Missions of California*; Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

GARDNER: *Winners of the World during Twenty Centuries*; F. H. Revell Co., New York.

JOHNSTON: *Adoniram Judson*; F. H. Revell Co.

MC MURRY: *Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

MONTGOMERY: *Western Women in Eastern Lands*; The Macmillan Co.

RHEA: *Henry Martyn and Samuel J. Mills*; with Stryker; F. H. Revell Co., New York.

SCUDDER: *Nineteen Centuries of Missions*; F. H. Revell Co., New York.

SPEER: *Young Men Who Overcame*; F. H. Revell Co.

STEWART: *The Life of Sheldon Jackson* (missionary pioneer in the Rocky Mountains); F. H. Revell Co.

Group 4

GRAVES: *Great Educators of Three Centuries*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

PARKER: *History of Modern Elementary Education*; Ginn & Co., Boston.

WINSHIP: *Great American Educators*; American Book Co., New York.

Group 5

ADAMS: *Heroines of Modern Progress*; with Foster; Sturgis and Walton Co., New York.

BOLTON: *Girls Who Became Famous*; Thomas Y. Crowell Co., New York.

GILCHRIST: *Life of Mary Lyon*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

HORTON: *A Group of Famous Women*; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

HUNT: *Life of Ellen H. Richards*; Whitcomb & Barrows, Boston.

TAPPAN: *American Hero Stories*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

WHARTON: *Colonial Days and Dames*; J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia.

WILLIAMS: *Some Successful Americans*; Ginn & Co., Boston.

*B. For the Teacher***Group 1**

- BRUCE: *Social Life of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century*; Whittet & Shepperson, Richmond.
- BRUCE: *Social Life of the South*; with others; Southern Publication Society, Richmond.
- BURNABY: *Travels through North America*; A. Wessels Co., New York.
- COFFIN: *Old Times in the Colonies*; New York, 1880.
- EARLE: *Stage-Coach and Tavern Days*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- FISHER: *Men, Women, and Manners in Colonial Times*; J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia.
- FISKE: *Dutch and Quaker Colonies in America*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
- GREENE: *Provincial America*; Harper & Bros., New York.
- HULBERT: *Boone's Wilderness Road*; Arthur H. Clark Co., Cleveland, Ohio.

Group 2

- ANDREWS: *Colonial Self-Government*; Harper & Bros., New York.
- ASHLEY: *American Government (Part II)*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- BABCOCK: *The Rise of American Nationality*; Harper & Bros., New York.
- BASSETT: *A Short History of the United States*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- FISH: *Development of American Nationality*; American Book Co., New York.
- FLICKINGER: *Civil Government*; pp. 206-334; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

- JOHNSTON: *The United States: Its History and Constitution*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.
- MACDONALD: *Documentary Source Book of American History*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- MCLAUGHLIN: *The Confederation and the Constitution*; Harper & Bros., New York.
- SMITH: *Spirit of American Government*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- TAYLOR: *Origin and Growth of the American Constitution*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
- WALKER: *The Making of the Nation*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.

Group 3

- BARTON: *Human Progress through Missions*; F. H. Revell Co., New York.
- CLOUGH: *Social Christianity in the Orient*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- FISHER: *History of the Christian Church*; pp. 449-483, 509-527, 559-598; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.
- JOHNSON: *Great Events*, Vol. XIII, pp. 57-71; article on George Whitefield.
- LINDSAY: *Missions and Social Progress*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- OVERTON: *The Evangelical Revival in the Eighteenth Century*; Longmans, Green & Co., New York.
- WARNECK: *History of Protestant Missions*; F. H. Revell Co., New York.

Group 4

- ALDERMAN: *J. L. M. Curry: A Biography*; with Gordon; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- CARTER: *Mark Hopkins*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

- DEXTER: *History of Education in the United States*; The Macmillan Co.
- HINSDALE: *Horace Mann and the Common School Revival in the United States*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.
- HUBBELL: *Horace Mann*; Wm. F. Fell Co., Philadelphia.
- LANG: *Horace Mann*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.
- MURRAY: *Francis Wayland*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
- PHELPS: *David P. Page*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

Group 5

- ADDAMS: *Twenty Years at Hull House*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- BOLTON: *Some Successful Women*; Lothrop, Lee & Shepard.
- BROOKS: *Historic Girls*; G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.
- BRUCE: *Woman in the Making of America*; Little, Brown & Co., Boston.
- EARLE: *Margaret Winthrop*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.
- GOODWIN: *Dolly Madison*; Chas. Scribner's Sons.
- GREEN: *Pioneer Mothers of America*; G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.
- PRYOR: *My Day*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- PRYOR: *The Mother of Washington and Her Times*; The Macmillan Co.
- RAVENEL: *Eliza Pinckney*; Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York.
- STUART: *The Philanthropic Work of Josephine Shaw Lowell*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- TIFFANY: *Dorothea Lynde Dix*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

"History in the Elementary Schools," by S. B. Howe, in *Education* for June, 1914, will be read with interest in connection with this chapter.

CHAPTER VIII

A SUMMARY OF AIMS AND METHODS FOR THE GRADES

IT is my purpose to bring together here, in brief compass, a number of the things already presented in the preceding chapters, and in connection with these a few others that have perhaps not been mentioned hitherto.

We may do well to begin the teaching of history in the first grade, even in the home before the child goes to school at all, if we begin in a natural and sensible way — that is, largely in the child's way or in ways that the child will understand and appreciate; and we may continue to teach history as long as the school course continues: through the high school, the college, the university, or the professional school. Yet in every process and in every period of the course we must study the pupil as well as the facts we are trying to teach him, and consider carefully our ways of doing things with him. In short, we must observe a good many cautions as well as some recommendations.

Do not burden the child at first with a textbook. This caution should naturally suggest itself if we be-

gin teaching the child history before he can read. But even after he can read a little, let us be careful about thrusting books upon him. With a good teacher he may get along very well without a history book in his own hands until he comes into the fourth grade. Do not construe this as an iron-clad rule for every case. Every case must be decided for itself. The child is the main factor; the subject and the circumstances count for something; the books available must be taken into account; the teacher is the wise judge. If the child wants to read history stories, or books of that nature, before the fourth grade, by all means let him do so. All I say is, Do not burden him with a textbook. This means, do not force a textbook into his unwilling hands; do not give him one that is too heavy for him, even if he is willing to receive it.

With a wise teacher almost any rule will work well; with an unwise teacher almost any rule is dangerous.

Do not confuse the little child with dates, and do not terrify him with skeletons. Dates are necessary in the complete scheme of history, but you must not undertake to teach the little child history in its completeness. Skeletons are the framework, or architectural fundamentals, of history, shown in their bare outlines. Skeletons, too, are necessary, in history as well as in anatomy, but in teaching children I do not believe we should show skeletons to start

with. It seems much better to study first some of the beautiful things of the outside, whether we are studying the human body, a tree, or history.

Tell the little child a story, a story of some man or woman that helped to make a bit of history, somewhere, sometime. Tell him a story, and then tell it to him again. Do not tell him too many different stories at first. Too many will confuse him. When you have told him a good story, have him tell it to you.

Celebrate a few holidays — three or four a year; more, if convenient and desirable. Make what you present in words or in action as full of detail, as vivid with color, and as impressive as possible. Vividness and impressiveness will generally be secured in proportion as things are made concrete. The abstract is almost certain to be a fatal wilderness to all children, and also to many a self-approved Joshua.

Avoid complex stories and complex situations with beginners. As the child grows the situations and stories may grow; but nothing very difficult or complicated should be attempted in the first four or five grades. All along here it is the teacher's business to make things simple, rather than to twist them up for the fun of untangling them.

In order to give much to your pupils, get full of the subject yourself. Getting the facts well in hand is not enough. An encyclopedia is full of facts, but it does not usually prove the best teacher. As a

teacher, a living teacher for living pupils, you need to get full of the spirit of your subject ; of botany, if you teach botany ; of literature, if you teach literature ; and of history, if you teach history. Beware of a zeal without knowledge, but do not imagine that a knowledge without zeal is much better — for a teacher of children.

Get some good manuals — guidebooks for teachers of history — and make yourself very familiar with the one or two that seem to meet your needs most fully. Do not imagine that a stack of such books that you have never studied, and to which you never refer, is going to help you much. In the second place, do not be so foolish as to try to do everything the guidebook suggests. Every manual ought to be comprehensive enough to meet the needs of many teachers and many different classes : it would be folly for a single teacher to explode it all upon the heads of a single class in a single session. In the third place, dare to do some things for yourself — some things that are not in the manuals at all. There is little hope for a teacher who is afraid to do a thing, good though she is convinced it is, until she has glanced anxiously into her guidebook to assure herself that it has the stamp of authority. Such a person is not a real teacher. Such a person is a slave to convention, a moral coward, and has no right in the noble ranks of the teaching profession. A teacher must have courage, and must be willing to face the criti-

cism that is always one of the rewards of leadership. Teachers have the right to be pioneers; and no authority, however renowned, has a monopoly upon invention and skill.

Seize your surroundings: the objects within reach and sight that have historical values; the incidents of the hour, and the passing anniversaries of notable events of long ago. Seize the time, then, as well as the surroundings, for both are eloquent in your aid. The teacher, like the orator, must make the place and the occasion reënforce his utterance. Napoleon could not have spoken so forcefully except in the shadow of the pyramids, and Lincoln's most famous address could not have been uttered anywhere else so finely as at Gettysburg.

In celebrating holidays, such as Discovery Day (October 12) and Thanksgiving, in describing the Indians and pioneers, and in portraying primitive life in its various phases, use constructions as well as stories. A large sand table is a fine foundation for temporary structures. Upon it may soon be grown a forest of cedar, pine, and oak; at one place may be a wigwam, at another a settler's cabin in a clearing. Yonder may be a fort of stone or logs, surrounded by a palisade. A piece of glass set down on the bottom of the table may represent a lake or an arm of the sea; and upon it may be placed some boats or a tiny ship.

Maps and sketches on the blackboard, drawings

on paper, bows and arrows, moccasins, household utensils, and farming implements, each made of suitable materials, may all be thought of as possibilities under the head of constructions.

Utilize the resources of your community for historical excursions of larger or smaller compass.¹ Drill yourself in the art of story-telling, by cultivating the qualities of directness, clearness, simplicity, and sympathy. Get your children to hunting for stories, and urge each one to find a new one if possible, one that has never been written down or printed in a book.

Have a museum for history, as well as a library, and make use of it. For small children — for pupils in the first three or four grades — a good museum is worth ten times as much as a library. Let the children help build up the museum. This process will be a good sort of training in itself, and will develop intelligent interest and school spirit. Many old cast-off utensils and fabrics of several generations past, that will soon be destroyed or lost, if not cared for by proper hands, may be gathered together at the school with great profit.²

Remember that all the way through the grades the child is chiefly making acquaintances. This, of

¹ See "Local Historical Excursions as Class Exercises," by E. M. Violette; pp. 33-40, *History and Government Bulletin*, March, 1914; First District Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.

² See "Historical Museum," pp. 48-58, of the above *Bulletin*.

course, is most obviously and most thoroughly true at the beginning. It is your business, as his teacher, to introduce him to men and women, to facts, to situations, to scenes of beauty and truth and power, and to help him gather great stores of materials with which he may build through all the following years. If you appreciate this great fact you will necessarily see that to him, at first, nearly everything is new and strange. Not to see this, or not to regard it, may mean your failure as a teacher. One of your problems, then, is to avoid identical and needless repetition from year to year, yet at the same time to enable the pupil to view the common field from many points of vantage.

The materials and opportunities at your hand are many, but the motive that pushes you to success is one: it is love for your work — enthusiasm, if you please. The triumphs of history have derived more from the enthusiasm of leaders than from any other human force. The teaching of history, with children at least, depends more upon the enthusiasm of the teacher than upon any other factor.

Finally, keep continually before you the human element in history — the moral values. Men and women have made it; it has been made for men and women; it points to the origins and the issues of life. You must make it a force for character and good citizenship. You are under a constant obligation to make the history course for the grades use-

ful for life to those pupils who never go beyond the grades, and at the same time so vital and thoroughgoing that it will serve as a good foundation for any and all subsequent study to those who continue in school.

CHAPTER IX

HISTORY IN THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL

BECAUSE of its general values for good citizenship, we claim a respectable place in the high school for the study of history; and because the citizenship we contemplate is to be exercised in a particular country — our own country — we seek in this study of history the particular character and values that seem to promise most for the making of citizenship in the United States of America.

For many generations the human interest of history has been acknowledged in many lands. In recent years it has gained fuller appreciation in the great awakening regarding the necessity for a more serious and a more general study of all social sciences; yet, strange to say, in only a few of our high schools — “the colleges of the people” — even at this late day, has anything like adequate provision been made for history-teaching and history-study. In the great majority of American high schools the history courses are too short, too irregular, too poorly taught, and too lightly regarded.¹ In many of our high schools,

¹ See an article in the *History Teacher's Magazine*, March, 1914, entitled “History in the High School Curriculum,” by St. George L. Sioussat.

and in some of quite respectable standing, no course whatever in American history is provided. This is certainly too bad.

Let us study about other worlds, in which perhaps nobody lives, if we have time ; but by all means let us study about our own world, and the people in it, since it is here that we must live and do our life work. Let us learn, if we have the opportunity (and, incidentally, the brains), how to draw, determine, and calculate all sorts of possible curves, seen and unseen, in space and in infinity ; but, in all conscience, let us perceive it as our duty to get some notion of the sort of curve a normal human life should follow, in a normal human society. If schools are intended as a preparation for subsequent life, it seems reasonable to demand that we have taught in our schools the subjects that unfold life in the truest possible colors. All subjects of study, doubtless, have something in them of vital interest ; but, obviously, if we are seeking those that deal with human character, human conduct, and human destiny most directly we cannot neglect such subjects as history, literature, civics, and sociology.

If we decide that history is of sufficient importance to merit a place in our high school courses, the next question is, What history shall we choose to put into these courses?

Inasmuch as a majority of the pupils in our elementary schools never get into high school, or

never complete high school, it would appear that the history taught in the grades should aim primarily at helping the pupil to be a man or a woman, and only secondarily at articulation with high school courses. Likewise, inasmuch as a large majority of the pupils in our high schools never go to college, it seems right that the history taught in the high schools should aim primarily at moral worth and social efficiency, and only secondarily at articulation with college courses. Nevertheless, a good history course for life values ought to be a good course for college entrance, and *vice versa*. Moreover, in the better class of high schools it will generally be possible to offer some range of election, so that the pupil preparing for college may conform agreeably with the college standards, and the one preparing more directly for home and office and shop and farm may study what seems best for him.

In any case and in every case it would certainly not be amiss for the young American in high school to study American history and government at least one year. If he have but one year in high school, one of the subjects of study for that year should aim at enlarging his knowledge of his own country and at clarifying his sense of what a citizen of that country ought to do and be. Upon these premises the following scheme is submitted:—

OUTLINE OF WORK IN HISTORY FOR AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS

A. FOR WORK COVERING ONE YEAR

United States History and Government. — A general course, but one in which later periods are emphasized rather than the earlier ones, and in which the duties and opportunities of the citizen in government are dwelt upon rather than the intricacies and technicalities of systems.

B. FOR WORK COVERING TWO YEARS

First Year: *The History and Government of Great Britain.* — A general course, but one in which the growth of social, political, religious, educational, and industrial forces and institutions is emphasized, and in which the intimate relations with American history are carefully traced.

Second Year: *United States History and Government.*

C. FOR WORK COVERING THREE YEARS

First Year: *European History, from the Time of Charlemagne.*

Second Year: *The History and Government of Great Britain.*

Third Year: *United States History and Government.*

D. FOR WORK COVERING FOUR YEARS

First Year: *Ancient History*, centering specially about Athens, Rome, and Jerusalem, and coming down to about the year 800 A.D.

Second Year: *European History, from the Time of Charlemagne.*

Third Year: *The History and Government of Great Britain.*

Fourth Year: *United States History and Government.*

It is hardly necessary to remark that four years of work in history seems the desirable thing for the

good American high school, and for the good American citizen, in so far as he is or may be a high school product. It is confidently believed that such a four-year course as the one outlined above, which is approved by good authority¹ and wide acceptance, as well as by sound reason, will be found most profitable for practical life values to the average student, and also acceptable to the average college as a preparation for the more intensive work of higher education. The shorter courses are not recommended in preference or even in competition, but only as expedients to be utilized in case the four-year course seems altogether out of reach.

In his high school history work the student should of course make due progress beyond the standards and methods of the grades, but should not be required to jump any great chasms suddenly, to ape the habits of college and university. Many students in attempting to pass from the last grade into the first year of the high school are confused and discouraged upon encountering differences much greater than ought to exist. Naturally and properly the work of September in the high school is more advanced than that of the preceding June in the last grade, but there seems to be no adequate reason why three months of holiday here may warrant a much

¹ See Report of the Committee of Seven to the American Historical Association, pp. 34, 35. More extended reference to this Report will be found in Chapter XXIX.

greater advance than a similar period of equal length the preceding year.

But having crossed the Rubicon, or whatever it is, and having entered upon the high school course, happily or unhappily, the student must give evidence of growth. He must be able to work more independently, though not less regularly and systematically. He must develop the capacity for doing more work in a given time: for mastering longer assignments in the text, and for assembling more supplementary facts and materials from other sources. He should find increasing pleasure and facility in the use of source books, and after a year or two should have some degree of acquaintance with most of the history books in the school library. He should come to appreciate more keenly the values of history, and his interest in the subject should become increasingly intelligent and vital.

In high school the fervid patriotism of the grades should not be cooled, exactly, but refined, and rendered more sane and safe. The youth of fifteen ought not to be allowed to pose as a critic, yet he may certainly be permitted to learn that all questions have two sides — even the questions that were raised by the American Revolution; that even aliens and enemies have rights; that one purpose of historical study is to cultivate the virtues of charity and justice; and that the real student of history is seeking the whole truth rather than arguments that seem to

support his favorite set of opinions. He should come to understand that an appropriate Fourth of July celebration may be had without either noise or smoke; that firecrackers are, after all, capable of expressing a very limited circle of sentiments; that men and women of peace may be just as loyal and helpful citizens and patriots as those who haste to war; and that the men who are charged with the heavy responsibilities of national policy and national destiny are as likely to be sincere and right as an irresponsible, chinkapin press.

In the high school an increasing number of topical studies may be undertaken with interest and profit. Reports should be given, sometimes orally, sometimes in writing; but in every case the form of the report as well as the substance of it should receive careful attention. The study of biography should still be carried on, old acquaintances being discovered in new relations, and new characters being introduced. The values of biographical studies will come into fuller appreciation as the student goes on from year to year.

If the youth in high school is so fortunate as to have four years in history, according to the approved scheme outlined above, he will come in his senior year to the history of his own country again, better prepared than ever before to understand it and to appreciate it. During the three years in which he has been studying ancient, medieval, and modern

history he has been carrying with him the facts learned in the grades about American history, together with the notions he has formed upon the basis of those facts. As other countries, other ages, and other facts have come into his range of knowledge his notions about his own country have changed somewhat, and even the facts he learned as a boy grow larger and more significant as one stream of light after another falls upon them from Greece or Rome, from Paris or London. Accordingly, when he comes again, after long training and with enlarged vision, to review the history and governmental processes in the United States they will have many new meanings for him, and he will be able to see many new reasons for existing institutions here, because he has become familiar with many old origins elsewhere.¹

¹ In connection with the subject of this chapter attention is called to two articles in the *History Teacher's Magazine*, June, 1914: "Preparation for the High School Teacher of History," by N. M. Trenholme; and "Present Tendencies in High School History Teaching," by T. P. Marshall. In the *University of Virginia Alumni Bulletin*, July, 1908, is an interesting paper by R. H. Dabney, entitled "History in the High School."

CHAPTER X

HISTORY IN THE AMERICAN NORMAL SCHOOL

OUR normal schools have been charged with superficiality in the teaching of the facts of history, — perhaps in the teaching of subject matter generally. History, however, is one of the subjects the facts of which seem to be specially elusive. In state examinations for teachers and in college examinations for entering students the marks on history are so generally poor as to be painfully conspicuous.

Evidently there is somehow a frequent failure, in many parts of the United States, in the attempt to teach the facts of history. Are the normal schools altogether to blame? Is it true that the normal schools fail in their part of the business? What is their part? and what is the truth of the matter?

I believe it is true that our normal schools often do not teach the facts of history very thoroughly. May I be pardoned for saying that this is not the primary business of the normal schools? The primary function of the normal school is to give professional training. It is the business of the elementary and secondary schools, among other things, thoroughly to fix the facts — the subject matter —

up to a reasonable degree. The full graduate of a high school should know enough to enter college or to undertake professional courses in a normal school. But sometimes high school graduates do not know the subjects enumerated on their certificates; and sometimes a state is so poorly provided with high schools that the normal schools must take pupils who have had less than four years of high school work. It is easy to see, therefore, how the charge of superficiality falls upon the normal schools. But it is just as easy to see that they are being censured for what is really somebody else's sin.

The normal schools are properly professional schools, and should deal with every subject from the professional standpoint. Teaching facts, subject matter, as such, is not properly their business. It would be poor economy for them to do what can be done with less expense in the lower schools. Moreover, if the normal school should undertake to keep students long enough to do its own work and the work of the high school too, there would be a great outcry against the long time-requirement. The normal school hardly dares to ask a four-year high school graduate to work more than two or three years for a teaching diploma; and a period of two or three years is not long enough for teaching subject matter thoroughly and for giving good professional training. It is not long enough for the latter alone if the former has not been done.

But there is a way in which the normal school may become guilty, and make the charge against itself true and just: By admitting students with inadequate preparation, or by granting diplomas to those who do not know and cannot do. Those who do not know are superficial; and those who cannot do will leave their pupils superficial. Under such conditions the normal school is in a measure responsible and culpable.

To protect themselves against tasks that do not properly belong to them, to escape being charged with a superficiality for which other schools are justly responsible, and to secure a fair chance to do their proper work in a satisfactory manner, our normal schools must insist that students entering their gates really know the subject matter, the facts, that the elementary and secondary schools should teach them. For, be it clearly understood, the normal schools cannot in any way stand for superficiality, either in themselves or in other schools for which they are in some measure responsible. They must see to it that those persons who receive their diplomas to teach have adequate knowledge of facts as well as approved professional skill. If it is not the real business of the normal schools to teach subject matter, as such, it is their business to send good teachers to the lower schools and then to demand that those schools do their duty. Only when the preparatory schools do their work thoroughly can the

normal schools do their proper work in the time allotted them.

We should take pleasure in the fact, however, that the normal schools in doing their proper work have many opportunities for supplementing and strengthening the work of the lower (or preceding) schools; and as far as possible these opportunities should be utilized. It is a wise provision in the order of things that the matter of the various subjects is the logical material to use in teaching how to teach those subjects. Method depends on matter. The mind cannot go through a process of reasoning without ideas and notions out of which to construct the chain. A man cannot speak in approved manner without words. Likewise, in teaching principles and methods of instruction a concrete relation must be maintained. In giving professional training, materials of some appropriate kind must be used as a working basis, if the process is to be intelligible and usable.

Obviously, the facts and materials making up the subject matter of the respective sciences and arts are the natural and proper objects in which to embody the processes of the teacher's art. How to teach arithmetic is best shown in skillfully dealing with representative problems of arithmetic. How to teach botany is best shown by the scientific collection, study, and description of numerous plants. How to teach literature is best shown in the sympathetic and appreciative interpretation of some

literary masterpiece. And how to teach history is best shown by actually dealing with the facts, movements, and persons that have made history.

If, therefore, the normal school teacher should proceed at once to instruct his class in the most approved methods of teaching history to children, he would incidentally, if he did his work well, teach more or less history to his pupils. It would probably be better still, for his purposes, to take a month or two — a whole quarter if available — for reviewing or new-viewing the subject as such, so as to gather the working materials well into hand.

Such preliminary study of the subject, and all subsequent incidental study, should present new views rather than mere reviews. The normal school teacher of history should be able to reveal more in history than the average high school teacher; and the student preparing to teach should be expected to have keener and more appreciative discernment than the average student in the lower schools. Far from being superficial, the presentation of facts, although employed incidentally, should give a more profound insight and a juster sense of values than could reasonably be expected in the earlier stages of the student's progress. In so far, therefore, as the facts, forces, and institutions of history are studied in the normal school, the work should be comprehensive rather than extensive, philosophical rather than statistical; the aim should be toward a helpful

interpretation and application of facts rather than toward a mere catechising process to fix the facts. Such a process is out of place in a normal school.

Discussion should be encouraged, opinions should be elicited, and a good deal of stress should be laid upon the proper correlation of history with kindred subjects, such as literature, geography, civics, sociology, and upon the opportunities for making it concrete through handwork of various sorts. The student should do much work in the library, not only for the purpose of collecting materials for reports, essays, teaching plans, and supplementary study, but also, and especially, for the purpose of getting acquainted with books. This last-mentioned process is deemed so important that a later chapter (Chapter XXIX) is devoted specially to it.

Every normal school lesson in history, or in any other subject, if you please, whether given in the form of a lecture, a recitation, a series of questions and answers, a story, or a written quiz, should be an observation lesson. This statement is not to be construed as meaning that special observation lessons in the training school are not desirable or necessary, but as meaning simply that every time teacher and pupils come together both should have open eyes. The teacher should observe his pupils, collectively, of course, and individually, as far as possible. It is in this way that the teacher who wishes to learn may learn some of his best lessons. On the other hand,

his pupils should be able to learn as much from what they see him do as from what he tells them to do. In his own attitude and procedure before his class he should demonstrate at least some of the principles and methods he lectures upon with so much complacency and learning. The average pupil watches his teacher. The normal school student should make a specialty of watching his teacher. Not that normal school teachers are perfect, or can be perfect; but they ought to be, certainly, good enough to be watched with some profit to the pupil. A teacher, particularly a normal school teacher, who is not willing to be watched, not cynically but earnestly and sympathetically, had better resign. He is there to be watched. The intelligent student of normal school age is able to get theories and plans out of books, but he needs to observe teachers to see how they do things.

The next step, of course, is for the student to do things himself. Accordingly, the normal school teacher should make it a point of conscience to have his pupils do things under his direction. He should have them stand before the class. Walking up to the front and standing there show character and habit. But further acts are necessary. Let the student speak. Let her tell a story; let her present oral and written reports; let her quiz the class occasionally; let her choose subjects for lesson plans, adapting her choices to this or that particular

grade; let her do all the different things, as far as possible, that she will be called upon to do when she goes out to teach history upon her own responsibility.

It is what the normal school student does, rather than what she says or writes, that enables the teacher to judge of her degree of teaching power. It occasionally happens that a student who knows facts, who thinks clearly, who gets all A's on notebooks and examinations, is weak and almost a failure when up before a class trying to teach. On the other hand, it once in a while turns out that one who has had a hard time to make passing marks on paper shows an unexpected and surprising power on the floor.

The scholar whose bodily presence is weak has a good chance for growth in personality, and she may in time become a dynamic teacher; but so far as her all-round rank in a normal school class goes her paper grades must go down somewhat to make an equitable adjustment with her deficient floor powers. Again, in due equity, the low paper grades of the one who is deficient in scholarship may be raised somewhat in the general estimate if she have pedagogical tact and personal force, powers that are of primary importance in the teacher.

If three quarters, or terms, can be had for the normal school course in United States history, it seems to me that a distribution of emphasis like the following might be best. In the first quarter put the emphasis upon subject matter, reviewing and

new-viewing. In the second quarter let the teacher present chiefly principles and methods, ways and means of teaching the subject, giving demonstrations and illustrations of these methods, and so on, in ample measure. In the third quarter let the pupil show what she can do in the actual use of the various facts and methods learned or reviewed the preceding quarters.

As far as practicable, the history courses in our normal schools should be shaped toward particular fields. That is, the work done in the normal school should contemplate this or that definite work or definite field for each normal school graduate. In other words, each normal school teacher of history should have, in each one of his classes, a definite notion as to whether he is training teachers for the high school or for the grades. Although the general principles of history and of teaching history are true and applicable everywhere, the training in methods, in ways and means, should take a rather special character, looking toward, say, the needs of primary classes, intermediate classes, grammar grades, or high school.

Frequently college graduates are sought after to be teachers of history and other subjects in high schools. In many cases they prove to be very poor teachers. Two or three reasons are obvious. In the first place, most of them have had no special training to teach anything. In the second place,

some of them never expect to be professional teachers, and hence are little concerned whether they are good teachers or not. And, in the third place, about all the methods they can think of are the methods they have seen used in college, and these do not fit the high school.

Doubtless it would seem unkind to say that some very profound college and university professors are, as teachers, neither scientific nor dynamic; but it is nevertheless true. This fact must also be credited with some significance in enumerating the reasons why college graduates are sometimes poor teachers.

Now, nothing herein is to be construed as meaning that a high school teacher of history, or of anything else, does not need college education. He does need it, and he should have it; but before he goes into the schoolroom to teach he should also have professional training, aimed definitely at making him a good teacher. Frequently, perhaps in most cases, a four-year high school graduate, with two or three years in a normal school, will make a better teacher for the high school, or any other school, than the college graduate without any professional training. The better way will be happily found when the young man or young woman who intends to be a teacher will first graduate from the high school, then from the college, and then from the normal school. It is hardly necessary to say that a college graduate ought to get twice as much benefit from his normal school

course as the one who comes in straight from high school.

History in our normal schools should be taught in a highly sane and judicial spirit. The teachers of American youth must have not only a keen historical instinct, but also a true historical judgment. Enthusiasm is to be kindled to a white heat, but it must be safeguarded by fine self-control and a religious loyalty to truth. If we prize such qualities and powers in the teachers of our youth, we must demand them in the makers of teachers.

Our normal schools must help to develop a just appreciation of subjective values in history study, along with a due insistence upon objective values. History, if well taught or earnestly studied, is certain to take hold upon the student's life, interests, desires, ideals, and ambitions. These are subjective values. They are worth more than any mere knowledge of facts without effects. The teacher of the future will give more consideration to what the pupil is becoming in himself, and will not make him stand or fall upon a trick of memory.

The normal school teacher of history may certainly be allowed to use any method for presenting facts that he may choose, just so he chooses well in every case. He may lecture ; he may assign regular lessons in textbooks, and quiz upon them ; he may require oral or written reports upon particular topics ; he may occasionally have each pupil make a rather

exhaustive study of some character or subject, and embody the results in a dissertation; but in every process he should aim at developing as much as possible the student's own self-directing powers and his sense of responsibility. Those who are soon to go out to direct others should learn, as good stewards of life, how to control themselves, how to use their time, and how to direct their own powers and activities.

CHAPTER XI

THE USE OF THE HISTORY STORY IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

WITHIN recent years educators have come again to recognize the value of the story, particularly in history and related subjects. I say "again"; for of a truth the value of the story has been appreciated and utilized in education at many times in the past; and in all countries and all ages, whether in school or home, whether in prose or song, whether upon silent pages or speaking lips, the story has had power.

By one of the fortunate accidents that so often redeem defective systems, a set of old history story books that were published in the early part of last century fell into my hands as soon as I began to read. They were entitled *The Child's First Book of History*, *The Child's Second Book of History*, and *The Child's Third Book of History*. It was accident, indeed, rather than plan that laid these books before me, but the accident worked better than many plans do. I looked at the pictures, I devoured the stories, I got a hunger for history. The same facts clad in the sober garb of philosophy might have repelled or even disgusted me; in the simple narrative they charmed me.

Since the day, so long ago, when those books were published, there has been frequent dearth of history stories for home and school; but now it is not so. History stories — all sorts of stories — abound. Our task now is to sift the wheat from the chaff.

Every child loves a story, just as every race in its childhood has loved a story. The poet in the Greek camps about Troy, the troubadour in the pleasant land of France, the minstrel in the Saxon halls, the ballad singer of the wild border, never wanted an audience; for whether he chanted or whether he sang, whether he lilted in the measure of verse or dropped quaintly into prose, the people listened eagerly, for he told a story.

He who gets the ear of a child will soon touch his heart. Securing and holding attention is one of the teacher's hardest problems, but the story is one of the easiest and happiest solutions. Moreover, the story is valuable for economy. Professor Hinsdale well says: —

“A bit of romance, poetry, anecdote, or story will often throw more light upon a historical situation, or let you deeper into a man's heart and life, than a page of careful analysis. The story of Alfred and the cakes, of Bruce and the spider, of Sidney and the cup of water, of Marion and the sweet potatoes, are not only thoroughly characteristic, but they tell us more than a laborious description.”¹

¹ Hinsdale: “How to Study and Teach History,” p. 48.

History in general is rich in story material, because persons, action, events, achievement, make up so much of history ; and persons in action, participating in events and shaping achievement, appear as the controlling factors in every story. American history in particular is especially fortunate in a wealth of story. It is so, first, because of the innumerable splendid achievements that have marked our life from the early beginnings unto the present ; second, because of the rapidity with which the action has moved all along the line of our marvelous progress ; third, because of the high nobility of character that has in nearly every case distinguished our great men and women ; and, finally, because the stories of American history are true stories.

We assume that no argument is necessary to sustain the contention that a history story should be true. It should at least be true to the common life of a time, if not actually true in every name and incident. The stories of old Rome and of old England are beautiful, many of them, and have great value ; but how much better for history would it be — perhaps for poetry too — if we could say of Romulus and King Arthur, “ They were not only real men, but they were just as they are pictured, and they did just the things with which they are credited.” We can say this of Columbus and William Penn and George Washington and Lafayette. America has its far-off age of shadows, to be sure, when dim,

uncertain figures moved behind the edge of dawn, but so far as our direct ancestors are concerned they came upon the New World stage in a full light, and the curtain has been lifted high ever since. The difference between our early American history and the early age of almost every other great country is the simple difference between history and myth, fact and fancy. It is worth much when we can tell the American boy a stirring story of his favorite hero, and say to him or let him feel "It is true."

At present no teacher of American history need lack suitable books for guidance in history story work. As intimated in the opening sentence and elsewhere in this chapter, the value of history stories has come again into recognition, and all progressive publishers are making haste to put suitable collections of story books upon the market. They may be had now by the dozens, some for this grade, some for that, from first to last. However, one rather serious lack may still be noted: the lack of stories of women, great and good, who have helped to make our history. It is probable, however, that this lack will not exist much longer.

Obviously, the largest proportion of story work falls naturally into the early grades. At first the teacher does nearly everything for the child: it is the story hour. At last the child is able to do nearly everything for himself: it is his day of strength. Accordingly, if one were to draw a diagram of this

transfer of power through the grades, he might use two of the dynamic marks of music: a long diminuendo mark, with just above it a long crescendo. The first, beginning large and gradually lessening, would represent the story work of the teacher; the second, beginning small and gradually expanding, would represent what the child grows into and acquires, making him more and more independent of what the teacher gives and does.

Notwithstanding the fact that the teacher may find many excellent collections of history stories ready for her use, she must still exercise her own good judgment in the selection of the particular stories that she uses. A story for little children should be simple in plot, and not too long. The characters should be few and well marked. The whole story should be full of human interest and alive with action.

Every story, for small children or larger ones, should be rich in detail — the little particulars about which the child will wonder if they are omitted. Broad generalities may glitter and sometimes thrill, but it is the realistic touch of a little hand, the shape and color of a hero's cap, the exact words that a mother spoke that chain attention and grip the heart. The story-teller must train herself in the skillful and accurate picturing of detail in action, form, color, word, and feeling.

To secure unity in a story it should be limited to a single incident, or should have a progressive conti-

nunity that leads clearly and strongly from one incident to another. If possible, it should reach a climax at or near the end. The climax may involve a surprise or may relieve a suspense that has been built up gradually. The element of suspense is valuable in exciting interest and holding attention. It should be utilized in some way: by withholding a name, by creating a dangerous or trying situation, by arousing a desire for an explanation which is not at once given, or by asking a question which the story is to answer. The story-teller must be on her guard against giving away all the points of interest at the beginning.

Probably the average story for the child should be a hero story; but the good teacher will likely take Vergil's theme and cut it half in two. "*Arma virumque cano*" is too much for our better time: "*Virum cano*" is enough. Children like the rattle of arms and the scramble of the fight, but we are now trying to train them for better things. Not that we can or ought to pluck out the fighting instinct, but we should give it proper aims and objects. As long as the world is full of dangers and life is full of struggles, we need the grit to fight and the grace to die; but both are "*in viro*" and neither is "*in armis*." We have come now to seek the heroism that gives life and saves life, rather than the sort that takes life or hurts life. We have risen to the plane of law and justice, at least in our aims, and widened

our love of heroism so as to include "the brave at home."

Here is a little story of a sort that may be given to children in the second or third grade.

ELIZABETH IRVINE'S RIDE

You perhaps have heard of the ride of Paul Revere, from Boston to Lexington, one night in April more than a hundred years ago. Now I am going to tell you about the ride of Elizabeth Irvine. She lived long ago too, about the same time that Paul Revere lived; but his home was in Massachusetts, and hers was in Virginia.

Paul Revere's ride was made one night, as I said. Elizabeth Irvine's ride was also made one night. But there were some differences, too. Paul Revere's ride was in the spring of the year, in April; Elizabeth Irvine's ride was in the fall, in October or November. And she rode twice as far as Paul Revere did. He rode twelve or fifteen miles, while she rode about thirty.

As I told you, Elizabeth Irvine lived in Virginia. Her home was in the beautiful Shenandoah Valley, on a little stream called Long Glade. Near by was a little village called Dinkletown. The big county of Augusta then included Dinkletown, the Long Glade section, and much of the country round about.

Elizabeth Irvine, at the time of which I speak, was a young woman, just recently married. She was not very tall, and had bright black eyes. Her husband's name was Francis Irvine.

One day, as autumn came on, Francis Irvine and all the other men on Long Glade and at Dinkletown started

on a hunting trip. They needed a supply of venison and other meat for the winter, and expected to be away from home a week or two.

The men left early in the morning, and the day was long and lonesome for young Mrs. Irvine; but about four o'clock in the afternoon she had a visitor. Who do you think it was? I know you could never guess. It was an old Indian woman called Shawnee Kate.

Kate was an old friend of Mrs. Irvine's, but her visit was a great surprise.

"Why Kate!" exclaimed Mrs. Irvine, "I haven't seen you for a long time, and I thought you were away out on the South Branch with your people."

Then the old woman told Mrs. Irvine something that made her start and give a little cry.

"Kill-Buck makes ready to get all the scalps at Deerfield. I come to tell you."

Deerfield was Mrs. Irvine's old home. Her parents and brothers and sisters lived there. They were in great danger, for Kill-Buck was the most cunning and cruel chief in all the country between the Shenandoah and the Ohio. Shawnee Kate had walked many miles to warn Mrs. Irvine; for often the little black-eyed girl at Deerfield had given the old squaw a smile and something to eat.

But it was thirty miles to Deerfield, and all the men of Long Glade and Dinkletown were away hunting. Kill-Buck was gathering his braves for the attack. They were hiding in the great mountains west of the valley.

It was a time for action, and Elizabeth Irvine did not hesitate. She had quick eyes and strong hands, and her heart did not fail. She saw the danger that hung over Deerfield; she also saw her own duty.

Out in the pasture lot was a good horse. It was hers. Her father gave it to her the day she left her old home to come to her new home on Long Glade. She ran out to the lot and called :

“Dundee ! Dundee ! Come, Dundee !”

The horse raised his head, set his ears forward, and came quickly to her side. In a few minutes he was bridled and a saddle was on his back. Mrs. Irvine mounted him and turned his head towards Deerfield.

The whole country was in forest, and the trails were rough and hard to find at many places. It was dark before she passed the headwaters of the Glade. It was midnight before she reached Buffalo Gap, the first mountain pass. Because of the darkness and the bad road she had to go slowly. Rocks and stumps were in the way, bushes swept the horse's sides, and rough branches of trees hung low overhead. If the horse had not known the way better than his rider, both would have been hopelessly lost.

Do you think Mrs. Irvine was afraid ? Yes, she was afraid. And that proves her a brave woman. She rode right on through the darkness, even though she was afraid. She was used to the hooting of the owls ; and I do not think she minded much the howling of the wolves ; but she did shiver a little when she saw a tall stump that looked like an Indian. She did not know how soon one of Kill-Buck's warriors might step out into the narrow path and clutch Dundee by the bridle. She thought that some of them might be on the watch.

Mrs. Irvine had a wonderful memory. Late in life she could recite Milton's *Paradise Lost* and Young's *Night Thoughts*. But she must have had many thoughts of her

own that night. I doubt whether she recited poems that night, unless it was some of King David's. She was a Scotch-Irish Presbyterian, and knew her Bible by heart too. She may have gone over some words like these:—

“In thee, O Lord, do I put my trust; . . . for thou art my rock and my fortress; therefore for thy name's sake lead me, and guide me. Pull me out of the net that they have laid secretly for me: for thou art my strength.”

It takes a long time to ride thirty miles, even on a good road in the daytime. Over that rough trail, in the dark night, it took Mrs. Irvine hours and hours. As I told you, it was midnight before she reached Buffalo Gap. Deerfield was still eight or ten miles further on.

After a couple of hours more Dundee went down a steep bank and Mrs. Irvine heard his feet splash in water. She was pretty certain that it was the Calf Pasture River. Some distance ahead she could see the dim outline of a high mountain against the sky. It was the first great range of the Alleghanies, and she knew that she was close to Deerfield. As the morning star came up over the Blue Ridge, far in the east, she rode up to her father's door.

The settlement was saved.

Elizabeth Irvine lived to tell her grandchildren this story, and some of her descendants still live on Long Glade. If you wish to find Dinkletown on the map, just look for Bridgewater. That is the present name.

For boys and girls of the fifth grade and upwards, who begin to understand the importance of science in history and especially in our present-day life, the following story and others like it might be used.

THE "VOLTURNO" TRIUMPH

Shortly after daybreak on the ninth of last October (1913) a great ocean steamer was bravely plowing her way eastward through the waves of a stormy sea. Suddenly her course changed; her speed quickened. Like a frightened monster of the deep she heaved and plunged forward. Soon every rib of steel and close-locked joint in her giant body was trembling and throbbing under the strain of her mighty engines, far down in the burdened hold.

What had happened? Why the changed course and the quickened speed? Why was the great ship leaping forward like a frightened thing of life, fleeing as from a terrible foe?

It was indeed a race for life — the life of passengers and crew; and the terrible foe that threatened death could not be left behind. It clung to the fleeing ship and was carried along in the race. The smoke that rose from the forward decks and mingled with that of the furnace stacks told the story: The ship was afire!

It was the good ship *Volturno*, with hundreds of men, women, and children aboard. Her young captain and his brave men were fighting the fire and driving the vessel forward in the hope of finding rescue.

Far off on the stormy waters another great ship was suddenly changing her course, and leaping forward at increasing speed. The passengers perhaps wondered, but the reason soon became known. A miracle had called out of the skies. Out of the clouds a little voice had come, searching far and wide for a listening ear. Out over the rolling waves, up into the seething air, from height to

height and from cloud to cloud it trembled on until at last it touched and thrilled a human soul. High on the second ship the operator of the wireless telegraph sat at his post, faithful and vigilant, the receiver at his ear; and he caught the little cry for help that came struggling through the clouds.

As he listened he learned the thrilling import of the message: "We are afire — cannot stop it — come quick or 650 lives will be lost." The location of the burning ship was also given; and then out into space, far across the leagues of sea, this heart-cheering answer flew: "We are coming — forced draught — cheer up — we will take you off."

It was to make this promise good that the second ship changed her course and rushed forward at top speed; but the distance to the *Volturno* was eighty miles; and from her forecastle was rising a column of flame forty feet high.

Escape by the lifeboats of the ship was impossible in the savage seas. Some were lowered and filled with human cargoes, only to be swamped or dashed to pieces. A hundred lives were lost to prove that escape in boats was not to be hoped for. The horror of the situation was increased by several terrible explosions in the hold of the ship, which seemed enough to burst her steel-ribbed hull and open it to the hungry waters. In terror and with shortened breath the huddling groups on the decks watched the bow of the ship, expecting to see it settle down into the depths at any moment. The officers of the *Volturno* expected that she would burn to the water's edge in an hour, but they did not speak of their fears to the passengers. Instead they distributed life preservers and continued to fight the flames. Risking their lives

in deadly peril, they bore themselves as men, cheering the passengers with words of hope.

It was early morning when the fire broke out. It was noon before the first rescue ship, the gallant *Carmania*, came up. The chance of rescue even then seemed hopeless, for the storm and the sea threatened death to all who sought escape from the flames. The shivering groups pressed toward the stern of the fated vessel, with imploring eyes fixed on the helpers so near, yet so powerless to give them aid. Hour after hour passed, and ship after ship came racing in over the rolling seas in answer to the little trembling call that had gone out upon the winds and clouds. Time and again through the terrible afternoon efforts were made to lower boats and reach the burning ship; but all in vain. Every boat was beaten back, though strong men did their best, risking their lives in every attempt.

At half-past five in the evening the ship *Kroonland* came up. Her crew lowered boats, as others had done, but these too were dashed back. Night was approaching, and death seemed to frown from sky and sea. The pain of those who had failed to give help answered to the despair of those who were going slowly down with the burning ship. One who stood on the *Kroonland's* deck and looked across the heaving valleys of death thus described the scene: —

“We could see the passengers grouped at the stern of the *Volturno*. Their cries for help wrung our hearts. Women could be seen stretching out their arms to us and holding their babies for us to see. Their ship was blazing like a furnace forward of the funnel. Our boat was forced to return without reaching her.”

But the brave captain and crew of the *Volturmo* still fought on and hoped for rescue. Shortly before dark Second Officer Edward Lloyd, stern-faced and resolute, with four other brave men, undertook to show the rescue fleet that a boat could be taken across the waves. They launched a lifeboat, and after a terrible struggle reached the *Kroonland*; but as they clambered up the *Kroonland's* side their shattered boat sank.

Through the long, black night the rescue ships circled near the center of fire, their searchlights piercing in hither and thither through the vales of shadow. Toward morning the seas began to subside. From the *Narragansett*, an oil steamer, great quantities of oil were pumped on the angry waters, and soon it became possible to reach the *Volturmo* with less danger. At five o'clock the real work of transfer began, and at nine the task was done. For more than 24 hours the *Volturmo's* crew had fought the flames, and the terrified passengers had watched the fight. Ten rescue ships had come out of the dark horizons in answer to that thrilling call of the air, and had gathered in a rolling circle about the fated vessel. Storm and sea and fire raged through the long hours, but 521 out of 657 on board the *Volturmo* were saved.

The young captain of the *Volturmo*, having nobly led his men in the fight to a splendid finish, came finally up the *Kroonland's* side.

"One could not tell," said a passenger who saw him, "whether he was a white man or a black man. His face was scorched and blackened by fire and smoke. His eyes were red and painful. His uniform was in tatters. His shoes had nearly been burned from his feet. His coolness and his gallantry were warmly commended by

his passengers and crew and by the people on the rescuing ships."

As he came aboard the *Kroonland*, last of all to leave the flaming *Volturmo*, he carried with him his dog, which he had found on his last careful search.

The young captain's name is Francis Inch; and we feel like saying, "Every inch a man." He and his men represent the modern chivalry, the heroism of the higher life. And along with their names let us link that of William Marconi, the man of science, whose thought has winged so many brave acts with power. The triumph of that terrible day on the sea was a triumph of modern science and modern manhood.

To begin with, the teacher is the teller. To be a good story-teller, she must cultivate a style that is clear and easy, and somewhat picturesque or graphic. Her manner must be vivacious, and she must have feeling and imagination enough to enter into the story with spirit. She must add the power of her eyes and face and attitude and tone of voice to the words she utters. Reading good stories and listening to good story-tellers will help her; but after all she must train herself in the art by careful, thoughtful practice.

As aids in story-telling the teacher may use maps, pictures, relics, blackboard sketches, and music. A poem recited or a song sung may often add a touch of power to a story. The historic songs that are now accessible on talking-machine records have a decided value for the teacher of children.

Finally, balance impression with expression. Have the child reproduce the story. This will help him in fixing and organizing the facts; it will give the teacher a chance to judge of her own work; and it will develop ease and skill in the child's manner and speech. If the story is difficult, it may be told to the child several times; but sooner or later he should be asked to repeat it.

Reference Books

Following is a brief list of books that will be found helpful by the teacher in her efforts to develop the story-telling art.

ADLER: *The Moral Instruction of Children*; D. Appleton & Co., New York. — Particularly pages 106–165, presenting selected stories from the Old Testament and from the *Odyssey* and the *Iliad*.

ANDREWS: *Everyday Heroism*; American School Peace League. — A select bibliography in bulletin of July, 1914.

BAILEY: *For the Story Teller*; Milton Bradley Co., Springfield, Mass.

BLAISDELL: *The American History Story Book*; Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

BRYANT: *How to Tell Stories to Children*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

DYE: *The Story-Teller's Art*; Ginn & Co., Boston.

ESENWEIN: *How to Attract and Hold an Audience*; Hinds & Noble, New York. — This is a general treatise on rhetoric and public speaking, but it may be studied with special reference to skill and power in telling a story.

KEYES: *Stories and Story-Telling*; D. Appleton & Co., New York. — Unfortunately for our purposes this work deals with stories of fancy rather than with stories of fact.

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MACE: *Method in History*; Ginn & Co., Boston. — Particularly pp. 282-308.

MCGOVERN: *Stories and Poems with Lesson Plans*; Educational Publishing Co., New York.

McMURRY: *Special Method in History*; The Macmillan Co., New York. — Particularly Chapter III, pp. 34-118.

WILTSE: *The Place of the Story in Early Education*; Ginn & Co., Boston. — The first chapter of this book presents many excellent points for story-tellers, and the whole book may be read with profit in this connection.

The *Story-Teller's Magazine*, published by the Story-Teller's Company, New York City, will be found of interest and value by the teacher in the grades.

CHAPTER XII

HISTORY IN BIOGRAPHY

FROM the history story it is an easy and natural step to biography. Most of the stories relate to history makers, introducing them in characteristic attitudes and significant incidents. Indeed, so many incidents in the life of a man like Washington may be given in stories in the first grades that a full-length picture of the man is constructed by the child, for himself, even before anything like a formal biographical study is planned by the teacher. When a connected biographical study is begun the child is pleased to meet an old acquaintance; to find a logical connection between the incidents of which he has already heard; to see reasons for certain actions he has long admired but perhaps never much understood; and to reconstruct his picture of the hero in the fuller light and according to the better standards.

Biography fills a large place in history; and may we not say, especially in American history? The fact that, so far as the English, French, Germans, Dutch, Swedes, Scotch, and Irish are concerned, we have no prehistoric age in America makes our history begin with real biography, and not with myth and fable.

The fact that our state and national systems were worked out in fine form before our country was crowded with a dense population not only gave a few great men a chance to fashion great things, but also gives us a chance to see what those men were really doing. In older lands the clouds of uncertainty rest upon the face of history until the ages are far advanced, until many fundamental processes in politics, religion, literature, industry, and social institutions have been wrought out, and until the face of the earth is so full of men that we either cannot tell who are the masters of progress or despair of knowing them because of their multitude.

In the United States it has been different. From the time our forefathers first came to the New World we have had a fair record of their doings; and because they could begin here with an advanced degree of civilization it was possible for them to accomplish wonderful things in a few years, and before the number of workers became an indistinguishable multitude. Consequently the biographies of a few great characters give us a grip on nearly all the significant and constructive forces in the making of what we call America. American history is rich in biography not only because of the splendid qualities that have generally distinguished our leading men and women, but also because of what it has been possible for a few men and women to accomplish.

The child appreciates the maker of history before

he understands the making or the meaning of history. Accordingly, it is possible to introduce the study of biography at an early stage in history teaching. Because of the many sides of great human beings it is possible to continue the study of biography with profit in college and university. The child will study Washington with one sort of interest, the statesman with another; both with profit.

In biography what we term human interest is strong and obvious. This will doubtless be acknowledged however we may define human interest, or even if we do not attempt to define it at all. Each person may make his own definition and still find the statement true. Theories often seem vague and far off. Things often appear to have no connection either among themselves or with us; thoughts are frequently bewildering; but living, suffering, loving, conquering men and women come very near to us, and our hearts are soon beating sympathetically with theirs.

Biography emphasizes the personal element in history. The personal element can hardly be overvalued. In truth, we are constantly in danger of not recognizing the personal forces in great movements at half their value. We speak of the course of events, as if things of themselves worked themselves out in logical series. We abstract the spirit of the age, as if it were something that has an existence apart from the embodied spirits that walk and

talk before us. Evolution has become evident in so many things, persons, and institutions that we almost imagine evolution as a force in itself that comes and lays hold of us and makes us go a certain way, whether we will or no. Let us know that so far as human events are concerned they are shaped largely by personal character and personal conduct. When we extol public sentiment or the spirit of the age let us be thankful that a majority of the influential people of the age have such controlling power through their agreement upon certain principles. It is very well to make the spirit of the age responsible; but we must not fail to make the ruling majority responsible for the spirit of the age. It is a personal thing, and can have no existence apart from persons. Sometimes a great man represents the spirit of his age; sometimes he dies trying to change it. Evolution may be observed in matter, but if so it was directed by intelligence, and intelligence can exist only in persons. Evolution may be evident in the life of a man, in his body, in his spirit; but in either case his own intelligence or that of another is responsible. Responsibility must always be forced back upon a person. Evolution in institutions is made possible only as people change.

Whether we speak of science or art or law or literature or invention or industry or agriculture or commerce or education or religion, we speak always of things that depend on persons and that can have no

existence apart from persons. All intellectual forces, perhaps, and all moral forces certainly, are personal forces. Intellectual and moral forces have made much of the world's history directly; much of the remainder they have made indirectly by their action upon material things.

The power of personality in history becomes strikingly manifest when we behold a man like Luther or Napoleon or Peter the Great or John Wesley. Only a few persons, it may be, have such power; but nearly all great powers come from persons — from a single person acting supremely or from many persons acting in more or less harmony.

In proportion as the student recognizes the personal element in history, in proportion as he sees how social and political institutions are determined by the characters and conduct of men and women, he will be forced to acknowledge his personal obligation as a citizen. Upon such a basis education for efficient and honorable citizenship ought to be proper and easy. Is it fortitude and devotion and patience and justice and enterprise and patriotism that have made the past glorious? Is it these qualities that we cherish for the future? These things are found in persons: nowhere else can they be found.

Biography makes history vital and concrete. It shows progress registered in human life, and physical factors controlled and directed by human powers. The abstract notion of history as a system beyond

us or apart from us takes definite forms in the friends and foes about us and in the striving forces within us. It may be very difficult for a boy or girl to make a generalization from many facts concerning a particular time; but either one can readily get acquainted with a man or woman that illustrates the time by being typical or representative. Graft and philanthropy are vague, elusive terms; but Tweed and Peabody become living realities, chained in memory, walking in the full noon of imagination.

All of us, children especially, are continually transferring ourselves into other selves. It is only a trick of imagination, to be sure, but we all do it, and it may be done with profit. The boy sees himself an Indian, a policeman, Columbus, or Daniel Boone; the girl sees herself a fine lady, a missionary, Molly Pitcher, or Priscilla Alden. Biography presents many attractive transfers to the imagination. Proper biography thus opens many desirable flights to aspiration, and at the same time closes many that are undesirable. The child's imagination is going to make flights, we may be certain of that; the child is going to think himself somebody else much of the time. Shall he be introduced into the company of nobles, who have made the best the world has, or shall he be allowed to find heroes for himself in Deadwood Dick and the nearest gang leader?

We prepare ourselves for action by observing what others do, and by picturing in thought what we would

do in their places. It makes a great deal of difference for life and citizenship where the boy goes when he jerks on the seven-league boots, as well as when he literally walks down town. The boy who habitually sees himself John Hampden, or George Washington, or Cyrus W. Field is getting ready to do his country real service; and the girl who thinks with burning heart what she would do in the crises that have always proved the nobility of womanhood is growing fiber for humanity in all the ages to come.

Biography makes historical classification easy and rapid. One of the great facts we need to learn in history as well as in natural science is that things, events, people, and institutions fall properly into classes, and that among the endless multitude and the infinite variety there are, after all, only a few great, determining groups. Men are easily classified as statesmen, scholars, soldiers, pioneers, inventors, and a child is able to make intelligent classifications of men long before he is capable of assorting and labeling theories, acts, and institutions. Moreover, upon the basis of the easy classifications in biography he is soon able to reach out and comprehend men and women of corresponding classes in all ages and all lands. Having learned to know intimately a few pioneers, he will have a fair acquaintance with the life of all pioneers. Having studied at length a few statesmen, he will be able to appreciate the ordi-

nary experiences and problems of all statesmen. Biography, therefore, like the history story, has a decided economy value.

The biography of a great historical character gives a natural and obvious continuity to contemporary events. The life of Daniel Boone leads one along the path of civilization from the older settlements out into the wilderness, and makes him a witness of the great movement of the people westward. The life of Franklin leads one along the shining way of scientific experiment, and at the same time chains together in a related series the steps and struggles of our national beginnings. Biography not only supplies the place of chronology, but it also makes evident many links in the chain of cause and effect.

As testimony to the value of biography in history teaching, both for children and for advanced students, we have many authoritative statements from Europe and America. Many of the best schools in both the Old World and the New World teach history largely through a study of the history makers. The practice seems to be growing, and all the standard publishing houses are making an effort to provide suitable biographies of distinguished men. I say men advisedly; for as yet not much has been done to supply the need of appropriate biographies of great women. There is a need here, not only because of the telling work women have done in the building of our civilization, but also because girls

in our schools have a right to their inheritance in the noble characters and devoted service of their mothers and grandmothers.¹

¹ In connection with the general subject of this chapter attention is invited to "Some Social and Political Pioneers of the Nineteenth Century," by Ramoden Balmforth; Swann, Sonnenschein & Co. The introduction to this book, dealing with biography and its relation to history, is finely apropos.

CHAPTER XIII

DRAMATICS AS A METHOD OF TEACHING HISTORY

THERE are three to whom drama is almost real life; The child, the savage, and the artist. With the last, dramatic expression has been perfected by long training; with the other two it is mainly an instinct, inherited through long ancestry. For our purposes we shall waive the interest that may attach to the savage and the artist, in order that we may give attention to the dramatic instincts of the child and the opportunity we have of teaching him history upon the basis of these instincts.

Just as some nationalities, like the French and Spanish, for example, are more dramatic than others, so some children are more dramatic than others. This probably means, for one thing, that imagination is more lively and vivid for some than for others. Nevertheless, every normal child has imagination and dramatic instinct enough to fill out many a historical incident if it is presented in action, and to portray many scenes and incidents of his own initiative if given any chance at all.

All of us have observed how readily the little boy transforms an old broom into a horse, and himself

into the expert rider of a plunging charger. I once started to dodge out of a path because I heard what I thought was a horse trotting up behind me. When I turned to look I saw a small colored boy coming on four feet, as it were, and imitating almost exactly in sound the horse-trot by holding in his hands two small tin boxes. He had the dramatic instinct, and was working it out in sound as well as in action. A little chap one day stuck his thumb into a cherry pudding; when he drew it out and held it up the tip-top was red. "That's Santa Claus," he exclaimed, "in a red cap." If Snug the Joiner has a good voice for roaring he does not need to hide half his face in a lion's mane: the child will see him a lion as quickly as Oberon, Titania, or Robin Goodfellow. A feather will make an Indian, a tent in the back yard a wigwam in the forest. A penny trumpet and a paper drum become a splendid military band instantly in the magic alchemy of the boy's spirit. A dark corner is a bear's den and the boy is a bear as he lunges out, growling fiercely. He cannot think about a soldier without straightening up and shouldering his imagination for a gun if nothing better happens to be in his hand.

Story and biography stir up the dramatic instinct, and call strongly upon the boy for action. As he goes with Washington across the Delaware he finds himself springing up in the bow of the boat and giving orders for clearing the way. As he stands

with Nelson upon the deck of the *Victory* he catches himself giving the famous charge, "England expects every man to do his duty." As he walks by himself and lives over the life of his hero he breaks out into stirring speech, strikes an attitude, and works out a long, complex situation in a few simple words and motions.

Since action is so much of the child's life and makes such a tremendous appeal to him, the teacher cannot afford to neglect all the waiting opportunities in this great field. Since action appeals to the child, let him see action: let him see some of the characters, classes, and incidents of which he is told in visible, moving, talking forms. And, on the other hand, since the child is himself always potentially and often actually an actor, let him do things and be persons under the teacher's guidance.

History is full of characters, situations, and incidents that lend themselves to dramatic representation. If any one doubts this let him recall the greatest operas and dramas of the greatest masters, and observe how many of them are historical. American history is especially fortunate here, because America has been preëminently the land of action, of swift and wondrous achievement. It has been said that America is poor in literary materials because of the homogeneity of its people and the sameness of its physical characteristics. It would be hard to find anything farther from the truth. There are cer-

tainly obvious differences between New Orleans and Philadelphia; between San Francisco and Boston; between the people of Charleston and the people of the Appalachian highlands; between the Scandinavians of the Dakotas and the sombrero-wearers of the Mexican border. If we desire more striking differences, we may utilize the red men who claimed the land ahead of us and the negroes that have been brought in from Africa. If we want to see the classes of our nation in close contrast, all at one place, we might find them during a brief stay in Washington; and if we desire to see the peoples of all the earth close enough together for interesting situations, we might find most of them in a tour about New York.

For nationalities we have the French, the Dutch, the Swedes, the Germans, the Scotch, the Irish, the Spanish, the Welsh, the Italians, the Russians, the Syrians, the Greeks, the Japanese, the Chinese, and as many more as you wish. For social and industrial classes we have the farmers, the miners, the lumbermen, the fishermen, the ranchmen, the pioneers and hunters, the Puritans, the Cavaliers, the Quakers, the Jesuit missionaries, the frontier preachers, the Indian traders, the stage-drivers, the fire-fighters, the soldiers, the sailors, the trained nurses, the Salvation Army men and women, the Red Cross workers, the policemen, and the railroad men. All these classes would lend themselves easily to distinctive representation, because of their striking costumes,

their different tools, weapons, or equipment, and because of the marked diversity in their several occupations. Not only would it be comparatively easy to represent any one of these classes in drama, but every one of them has played or is now playing an important part in American history.

Striking historical characters — persons — may be made up just as easily, and with historical accuracy enough to be of real educational value. John Smith, Pocahontas, Miles Standish, John Alden, Priscilla, William Penn, Peter Stuyvesant, Sam Houston, Robert Fulton, Lafayette, Eli Whitney, Marcus Whitman, Ponce de Leon, Henry Hudson, Benjamin Franklin, and many others have enough distinctive characteristics and equipment associated with them to be recognized without great difficulty, even if they were not very well portrayed.

For small children Indian life and the life of the white pioneers afford many appropriate subjects and incidents for dramatic reproduction. The "Indian suits" that have for some time been on the market for children make the matter of costumes a simple problem. For larger boys and girls inexpensive costumes and equipment may be improvised with little labor. Not long ago I witnessed a beautiful presentation of the "Song of Hiawatha," given by a number of young ladies. Their costumes were not expensive, and they certainly did not require much time for construction, for all who appeared in the

drama were busy students and did not have much time for "extras." A stick and a string made the famous bow, terrible to the timid deer, necessary to the hunter, and useful to the poet for adjusting man and woman. Another stick served for an arrow. An ordinary electric light bulb, wrapped in red tissue paper and tucked into a pile of wood under a small kettle suspended from a tripod, gave a fine effect of fire. Brown autumn leaves on the floor, and branches from the forest in profusion in the corners and about the windows, produced a woodland scene of sufficient fullness and wildness. Dark tresses unbraided and fair faces daubed with some harmless paint, with a few rather loud ornaments donned for the occasion, fascinated the gaze of the spectator and helped his imagination to rush swiftly back across the years and deep into the primeval forests. The chanting, the singing, and the dancing completed the striking scene.

Here are two specific suggestions. For giving a class or a school a good notion of the different nationalities that have made up the United States, it is possible without much trouble or expense to have a pair of the larger pupils represent each. A boy and a girl may be costumed and otherwise equipped to be Puritan English; another pair, Cavalier English; a third pair, Quaker English. Other pairs may personate the Dutch, the French, the Germans, and the Scotch. Similarly the various industrial classes

may be portrayed. Costumes should belong to the school, and the equipment may then be kept from year to year.

The second suggestion is this: Let various members of the class or the school personate famous men and women in history: Daniel Boone, Elizabeth Zane, John Smith, Pocahontas, Benjamin Franklin, Betsy Ross, and so on. There is no harm in letting each boy or girl bear in school the name of the historical person represented. Then, to make the proceeding still more interesting and profitable, let each actor make a special study of the life and character of the person he stands for, — become a sort of authority concerning that person; and let all questions pertaining to the historical man or woman be referred to the boy or girl that personates that man or woman.

Many good people dread the dramatic, and perhaps with very good reason. Nearly everything that has great possibilities for uplift has corresponding possibilities for degradation. The press and the ballot are other examples. Yet it hardly seems fair for the wrong party to be granted a monopoly of great powers by the voluntary withdrawal of the right party. There seems little more reason for teachers and others, who have the welfare of youth at heart, to surrender the drama to the vicious and mercenary than for them to surrender the ballot to the same classes.

After such a preface one may perhaps be allowed to

mention motion pictures. One hesitates to do it for the reason that they are so generally misused ; but, on the other hand, they embody such splendid possibilities for real education that teachers cannot afford to surrender them to those who abuse them.

Motion pictures supply a fine substitute for the drama, and often give values that untrained and improvised drama cannot give. Recently I witnessed a representation of Robin Hood and his merry men in old Sherwood Forest. The whole thing was excellent. It gave one a very definite and striking notion of many things that the books present only feebly. The outdoor forest scenes, the wild life of the outlaws of mediæval England, the dangers of travel, the castle life of the nobles, the task of the king's sheriffs, the skillful play with the rude quarter-staff, and the marvelous skill of the English archers, using the famous long bow, were all made very clear and vivid.

In large schools or in any place where a considerable number of persons may be secured for the occasion, historical pageants have great possibilities. They have a value from their imposing proportions as well as from their particular features. One of the finest lessons in American history it was ever my good fortune to receive came from a pageant in which about a thousand men and women took part. Nearly all the leading characters from Elizabeth's court to the wild borders of the New World were there. They

walked and talked in the forms and terms of truth. Nearly every State was represented, with some of its important persons or some of the most famous events in its history. The appeal to the imagination through the eye as well as through the ear was strong and lasting. The values of the undertaking far overshadowed the slight tasks of preparation.¹

¹ A helpful book in developing the dramatic instinct in classroom work is "Colonial Plays for the Schoolroom," by Blanche Shoemaker; Educational Publishing Co., N. Y. Messrs. Ginn & Co., Boston, publish "Pageants and Pageantry," by Bates and Orr, and "The Dramatic Method of Teaching," by Finlay-Johnson.

CHAPTER XIV

THE VISUAL APPEAL IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

DURING our waking hours the eye-gate is nearly always open. With children it is wide open. We can hardly appreciate how much we are continually receiving through our eyes until there comes a sudden breakdown at the electric "plant," and darkness closes the gate — this wondrous gate to the soul.

We hear the music in the hedge, or at best a mile away; but not only does the eye show the feathered singer near us, in his beauty coat, and the mile-away procession, whence the distant music sounds, it also reaches out to the far mountain summit where winds are turning trees to harps, and even up to the shining stars, each of which perhaps "in his motion like an angel sings"; but we cannot hear them. The ear admits innumerable guests that come knocking at the door of our understanding; but the eye admits more and entertains them longer. The eye reaches so far and takes the message so quickly that a great world, measureless in extent and infinite in variety, is given to our consciousness every moment; yet there is no jumble, no confusion: all is in perfect order, harmony, and proportion.

It has been said we remember one tenth of what we hear, five tenths of what we see, and nine tenths of what we do. This is perhaps a fair statement, generally true, yet somewhat misleading. The facts are perhaps not completely stated. For instance, in estimating what we receive or retain from what the hand does, we should take account of the great contribution the eye makes to the skill and efficiency of the hand. In other words, part of the nine tenths of a possible maximum benefit credited to the hand (the doing) should be credited to the eye, under whose guidance the hand works, and through which we get much of the knowledge and memory treasure supposedly acquired in the process of doing. If we doubt this, let us try working with our hands in the dark. Our skill — even our long-practiced skill — will miss, and we shall have a very vague notion of what we really have accomplished. It seems difficult to talk — even to talk — well in the dark, though we may have a beautiful picture on the screen, just at the shadow's edge.

“Seeing is believing” because seeing is so generally understanding. When the boy does not comprehend your explanation, he says, “I don't see it”; but “Now I see it,” he exclaims when he gets your point. The philosopher who said, “We are slaves to our eyes,” must have meant not only that we are largely dependent upon them, but also that we most readily and quickly follow them.

One reason, perhaps the chief reason, why drama makes such a tremendous appeal is because it sends the fact flashing in through the open eye-gate. The motion picture gains its superiority over the ordinary sort for the reason that it enables us to see so much more. Costume and scenery and fierce countenance and corded muscles could add no whit of effect, either in drama or motion picture, if the audience were blind. If the audience were blind, the motion picture would be nothing and the drama would lose more than half its force.

My point, therefore, is simply this: Let the history teacher, as well as the art teacher, appreciate the open eye-gate and utilize the many facilities at hand for keeping it thronged with the swift-winged messengers of beauty and truth.

In the textbooks are maps and pictures: they are there for a purpose, and in the hands of a competent teacher they have a great value. Maps and pictures on the walls of the room are of still greater value, because they are seen continually and attention may so readily be directed to them by the teacher's pointer and pointed words. The relics and models in the school museum are worth something as a mere collection, but their usefulness may be quadrupled if the teacher will bring them before his class and make them illustrate the statements of the text.

Every school, large or small, should have a museum. In every new building erected for school use, an ap-

appropriate room should be provided for natural, scientific, literary, artistic, and historical collections. It would be better still if every class room were equipped with cases and shelves for the storing of particular collections. By this arrangement art collections would be in the art room, literary collections in the literature room, and historical collections in the history room, all ready at hand when needed. In every community are many relics and other objects which are continually being lost and broken up, but which would be really valuable in a school museum. The children of the community should be awakened to the interest that centers about such things. Being once awakened, and given the opportunity to do so, they will vie with one another in finding objects of interest and bringing them in as contributions to their respective museums. The process of collection will be interesting and profitable; the further work of classification and labeling will give scientific training to pupils and teacher; and the profit from using the growing collections will increase through all the future.¹

Historical excursions to near-by scenes and buildings increase the pupil's interest, expand his intelligence, and clarify his notions, because they give him so much through the eye-gate. If a place cannot

¹ On pages 48-58, History and Government Bulletin No. 2, of the First District Normal School, Kirksville, Mo., issued in March, 1914, will be found a helpful article on the history museum.

be visited, let the teacher draw a plan of it on the blackboard, if she is sufficiently familiar with it to do so. The plan need not be elaborate, or even accurate in every particular: it will still give a more complete and more accurate notion than will many words with nothing to see.

Every teacher should build up a collection of drawings, diagrams, and charts on sheets of paper large enough to be seen over the class room. Every such diagram or chart put in convenient, permanent form, will add so much to the teacher's material equipment, besides clarifying and fixing his own knowledge of the things represented. The larger the collection grows, from year to year, the less time will be required in the preparation to teach the things thus portrayed. Furthermore, the economy of time to the teacher will be insignificant in comparison with the saving of time to the class. Permit the citation of an actual experience for illustration. I had found that, as a rule, hardly one pupil in a hundred understood or was able to explain clearly how the President and Vice President are chosen. And I found it necessary every year to spend two or three periods, of fifty minutes each, on as many successive days, in the effort to make the process clear. Finally, a simple and rather crude diagram was made, and placed on the blackboard (later on a wall chart) before the class. What then? Twenty minutes seemed worth as much as two hours before. What

made the difference? Simply this: There was something to see, and everybody saw it.

Economy of time, economy of energy, definiteness of notion, permanence of impression — these are certainly values worth considering; and these values may frequently be realized more fully by utilizing the eye-gate than by any other means.

In story-telling the skillful teacher will use action, facial expression, this or that object, or make such and such marks on the blackboard. She is thereby heightening the effect of her words and tone of voice. In the study of biography she will show pictures of the persons and pictures and maps of the places with which the persons have been associated. A vivid, orderly notion of the physical geography amid which a boy grew to manhood will give every normal boy a better notion of what his hero was and how he came to be thus or thus.

It is the open eye-gate that makes travel so swift and rich in its results. A half-hour in Independence Hall is better than a month of books that tell about it. You stand before the cracked old liberty bell, and get such a vision of other days and other scenes as you have never had before. Since it belonged to remote years, you imagined a little bell and a rather feeble voice; but when you see that it is as tall as a man and weighs over a ton you get an enlarged vision of the liberty it proclaimed throughout the land. You have read the Declaration of Independence and

the Articles of Confederation and the Federal Constitution, and you have read much about them; but when you walk into the East Room, the "Independence Chamber," you experience a new sense of reality. Here the Declaration was signed; here the Articles of Confederation were drafted; here the great convention met in 1787, and here the Constitution was finally wrought out. In this room Washington was made commander of the American army, and here the captured banners from Yorktown were finally laid down as trophies of victory. Yonder is the identical table upon which the Declaration lay when men took their lives as well as their pens in hand to make it good. There are some of the old leather-finished chairs in which they sat and listened to Richard Henry Lee, John Hancock, Franklin, Madison, and Hamilton. And all around upon the walls hang portraits — portraits of the patriots who labored here to build a nation, and whose very spirits seem now to come again and charge us to maintain in justice and honor what they established at so much sacrifice.

It is a dream of mine that some day, sooner or later, every normal school and college in our land shall have for its history department an endowment, liberal and secure, provided for the specific purpose of enabling the history classes to travel at least three months of every year, under the direction and instruction of their teachers. A term of history study, connected with travel, will be worth more than three

terms in books alone. Geography may thus be combined with history, and literature also, to some extent. The time thus gained will make possible the adjustment of programs and render the whole scheme entirely practicable.¹

¹ The Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pa., publish a "Teachers' Guide" of stereographs and lantern slides suitable for educational purposes. A fine collection of views for history and civics is offered. The "Little Phostint Journeys," on colored post cards, supplied by the Detroit Publishing Company, are very attractive. In this connection the Perry pictures will of course be thought of. The Mentor Association, New York City, provides an excellent series of historical pictures, which are much enhanced in value by the well-prepared historical sketches accompanying them.

CHAPTER XV

HELPING THE PUPIL TO STUDY

PLEASE observe the caption is not "studying for the pupil," but "helping the pupil to study." It might very well be "studying to help the pupil," or "finding ways to help the pupil to help himself."

Either extreme — any extreme — is almost inevitably bad. The teacher who does or tries to do everything for the child, all the time, is just as bad as the one who never does or tries to do anything for him, at any time. In fact, neither one is a teacher. The former is an infant's nurse; the latter is a guidepost with the inscription rubbed off. Every mean is somewhere between the extremes, but not every mean is golden. In my opinion, the teacher, especially the teacher of young pupils, had better err on the side of helping too much than of helping too little.

In fact, it is the teacher's business to help the pupil, whether the latter is young or old. Some so-called teachers do not help; but they are not, then, really teachers. Every real teacher is a helper, a leader, an inspirer, a benefactor. The question, therefore, is not, "Shall I help my pupil?" but "How can I help him most and best?"

No teacher can help his pupil most by carrying him when he ought to walk, or by making him so dependent upon crutches that he never feels able to stand erect and strong upon his own feet. Teaching, good teaching, is like good charity. It is a form of loving service, aiming to make every sane, healthy person a self-supporting, law-maintaining, society-helping citizen. Society comprises just two classes: lifters and leaners. It is the teacher's business to be a lifter, and to help his pupils to get into the same class as fast as possible.

Obviously, one of the best things any teacher can do, or may do, for the average pupil is to teach him how to study effectively. Weeks of time are wasted every year by students in high school and college, not to think of the grades, who cannot study, or do not study. I am not speaking of the lazy loafer. Eliminate him from present consideration. I am speaking of the earnest student, who is working himself to death, or thinks he is, without getting much forward. He has my sympathy. He needs help, and deserves it.

The main trouble is, so many teachers have not learned the art of studying. No wonder if they find teaching others how to study difficult. Little wonder if they forget to make the effort to do so. To master the task may require years of study and experiment; to indicate completely a course of procedure might demand a large volume; but let us

briefly consider here a few principles and methods that may prove helpful to teacher or pupil.

No one can study well without good power of attention. Accordingly, every student should continually endeavor to strengthen this power in and for himself. This he may do not only by persistently controlling his own thought and directing it according to his own purposes, but also by insisting that other persons respect the rights of his spirit as well as the rights of his body. It is no more rude and unjust for a fellow to break into your room and beat your head with a stick than it is for him to come rushing in, or shambling in, and break up the hard-wrought fabric of thought that you have been getting into form with infinite pains, and scatter the fragments far and wide. You should not allow him to do it. Students must learn to respect one another's study rights. You have no more right to walk into your neighbor's study hour than you have to smash his watch; and you should be ready to defend your own study hour as valiantly as your gold.

Possibly it may be well for advanced students, after each one has mastered the lesson for himself, to get into a group for discussion; but frequently such a proceeding is not only a great waste of time, but also a process that results in making the weaker members of the group still weaker. These likely come in before they have done anything, and go away imagining they have done something, when in reality

they have only listened to others say something — something usually of less value than the poorest line of the textbook.

Sooner or later the pupil must learn to dig, to dig for himself, and to dig hard and long; otherwise he can never be a real student.

About as bad as trying to study in a room full of talkers is trying to do it outdoors, under a fragrant tree, in early springtime. Pupils do not really go outdoors to study books, at such times. They go to smell the blossoms, to hear the hum of the bees, to watch the quick flight of the birds, to lie upon the velvety grass, to look up into the promising skies, and to dream of things far away. All this is excellent, in its place and proportion, but it is not serious study in books. Even though a thing is gold, do not fool yourself by imagining that you always need gold. Sometimes you need iron. If you want to read a book without distraction, go where you will see only the words on the page, where you will hear only the thrilling call of flying thought, and where you will feel only the struggle of your own soul to follow the call.

Dry and deadening textbooks are often a serious impediment to study; and the teacher can help the pupil very much by throwing such books away. There is no sufficient reason why any textbook should be dull and dry. Nature is beautiful with color and form, with adaptation and harmony, clad with flowers

while ribbed with granite. No book can truly and adequately portray nature without a beauty-painting power. Truth is interesting and simple always, when clearly seen. A book that makes truth clear is bound to be simple and interesting. Obscurity may be profundity, but it is the profundity of shadow. There is no need for an author to be boring in order to be accurate. And there is no need for a boy or a girl to be bored and disgusted with a dull book of history, for nowadays there are plenty of books, accurate as any, that will stir the very soul of youth.

There are, of course, a few things worse than a dull textbook. One of them is an occasional soul of youth that will not be stirred. Such a person is like powder that is not the least disturbed by the touch of fire. But there are only a few so bad as that. Most can be stirred, but it takes much patient effort in many cases to make the fiery touch. Dozens of our rising citizens can read Antony's speech over Cæsar without twitching a nerve or changing a tone. As many more can read what John Richard Green says about Joan of Arc, or even sing the "Star-Spangled Banner," with the same Olympian calm.

But is it "Olympian" calm? I doubt it. I fear it is, in plain terms, that sort of deadness that Scott suggested with so much unwillingness in the lines, —

"Breathes there a man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
'This is my own, my native land'?"

What accounts for such deadness on the part of occasional young Americans of fair average intelligence? Is it indifference? Hardly. Is it an affected cynicism? Not often. Is it a *blasé* egotism? Let us hope not.

In my opinion it may be explained by what I shall call, for want of a better phrase, "innocency of words." To them words have little meaning. In their memories many words are like distant friends of long ago. In their imaginations words do not leap into life and rush up with a life and death message. In their thought words are not things, vital and concrete, to be seen and felt, shaking the world.

Doubtless it is chiefly the business of the teacher of reading to get the pupil to understand and appreciate words, to visualize a sentence or a page, and to enter into the fellowship of silent thought with a feeling of kinship and even of ecstasy; but the teacher of history, as well as the teacher of mathematics, is a continual witness of the disaster that a lack of such power brings, and is forced to the conclusion that he and every other teacher must help to awaken this power.

How shall this power be awakened? Undoubtedly, the teacher that succeeds in taking away this "innocency of words" by making the pupil see and feel what the printed page really tells will do more than all others to help the pupil to study.

Somewhere at a handy place in your history notebook there should be a straight column of carefully written words. Those words were put there one at a time, as you found them in your history lessons day by day. When you wrote them down you did not know their meanings, but now you know, because you have written the proper statement as to meaning or meanings after each one. You have carried this process on so long that it has become a second nature to you. You could not be satisfied not to do it. To pass over an unfamiliar word without nailing it would keep you from sleep at night. You are positively restless until you know what a strange word signifies. It would be just as impossible for you to be satisfied about an urgent message you had failed to deliver, or not to keep groping after the name of an old friend who passed you on the street until you grasp it, as it would be for you to slur lazily over an unknown word in your reading. In short, you have the dictionary habit. It has become inveterate with you. If you can make the habit contagious, and give it to that pupil of yours, it will gradually get him into a new world. His innocence as to common words is holding him back from man's estate.

I believe that many pupils waste time by reading too fast. More exactly, they lose values by trying to read too fast. Naturally some persons read faster than others, just as some think faster and talk faster; but when a student, particularly an immature stu-

dent, races over thirty or forty pages in an hour the chances are that he is not studying well. He may intend to go over it again; but if he does go over it a second time, or even a third time, he will almost certainly do it as superficially as he did it the first time. One thorough, thoughtful reading would probably enable him to understand more and to remember more than two or three flying chances. So far as the values in careful habits are concerned, there can hardly be any question. The chances are that the boy who reads twenty pages an hour is a better student than the one who reads thirty in the same time.

Whatever stimulates the imagination or touches the feeling or broadens experience of life quickens appreciation of words and helps the reader to visualize his page. Poetry, fiction, and drama may all be used to good effect. There is nothing, however, like real life. Real life cannot always be had to order, upon call; yet a rich and varied experience on the part of the teacher may in some measure be transmitted to the pupil. It will help him to live as he reads.

The dictionary habit, cultivating imagination and feeling, treasuring and utilizing rich experiences, reading slowly and filling out the statement with your own thought: these are some of the things that will make the printed page a busy highway of life, thronged with friends we long have known as well as with strangers whose graces soon give us pleasure.

The student must learn to discriminate as he reads. Not all persons who appear in the narrative, not all topics mentioned in the discussion, not all dates recorded here and there are of equal importance. The reader of history who takes everything at the same value, and makes a uniform effort to remember everybody and everything and every time and every place, may be an earnest plodder, but he is not a good student. The teacher should, of course, give special and definite aid to the pupil in the effort to develop the power of intelligent discrimination. A plan like this is simple and helpful. You have just assigned the lesson for to-morrow: Chapter XIX, let us say, in Nida's *The Dawn of American History in Europe*. You say to the class:—

“In this chapter you will find the names of four famous men. All of them did some great deeds; but two of them did such deeds because they couldn't help doing them, while the other two did them because they wished to do them. As you find these men and see what they did, try to group them as I have indicated. All four are famous men: decide for yourselves whether all were great men or not. I shall ask for opinions at the close of the lesson to-morrow.”

As teacher you should also help the pupils to distinguish between generals and particulars. The poor student often flounders about in hopeless confusion, amid a multitude of incidents, failing to see

that they merely come in to explain or illustrate the main statement, which he perhaps overlooks altogether. Take, for example, the particular chapter just referred to above. Either first or last you might say to the class:—

“Please notice the real subject of this chapter: what is it?”

Among a variety of answers you would probably get the correct one: “The winning of English liberty.” Having written this on the blackboard, in large letters, you might continue:—

“Do you see how nearly all the particular incidents recorded in the chapter go to show this one thing? The signing of the Great Charter, the demands of the Great Council under the Great Charter, the high-handed measures of Simon of Montfort, the summoning of the knights to sit with the bishops and barons, the making of the Model Parliament, are all steps in the same process; so I write them down here under the main topic, a little further to the right, and in a smaller hand. It will help you very much to see that we are not studying about a half dozen great subjects here, but just one; and that the half dozen particular things, though of great importance, are really given to make the one thing clear. Always try to find the main subject, and then notice how other things take rise from it or come up and lean against it.”

Along with discrimination, analysis, and subordi-

nation of details go naturally classification and association. We set things of the same class together in thought, even though they were actually separated by ages and hemispheres. We may associate many things helpfully, even though they may not be much alike.

It should not be necessary in this full year of grace to say that history lessons should not be committed to memory, word for word. This is not saying that memory is an unimportant factor in education. It is fundamental. Neither is it saying that once in a while some fine passage may not be learned or recited verbatim. What I mean is simply this: It is usually much better for the student to make the author's thought his own thought, and thus remember the facts in his own words. Expression in his own words will then be natural and easy.

Once in a while the teacher may read over a lesson with the class in advance, to enrich their own subsequent reading. Frequently he may give much aid by suggesting certain points of lookout — high points of observation — whence the field may be seen to special advantage. A word of suggestion in advance is often worth more than a long talk after the matter is old.

When all teachers become real students — when they study the pupil as well as the facts and forces of human knowledge, and come to understand the processes by which the student may comprehend these facts and forces — then all teachers will become

real helpers. Then every history teacher will be a benefactor to society, and every normal citizen will become an appreciative, life-long student of history.

SUMMARY

1. Introduction

- (1) It is the teacher's business to help the pupil.
- (2) The question is "How?"
- (3) Teaching the art of studying is one of the best ways.
- (4) Many teachers themselves need to learn the art.

2. Development

- (1) The student must have power of attention.
 - a.* He must develop this power in himself;
 - b.* He must demand from others a respect for his study rights.
- (2) Studying in groups is of doubtful value.
- (3) The student must be able to dig. Digging is an individual process.
- (4) Studying outdoors is of doubtful value.
- (5) The teacher may help the pupil by throwing away dry and deadening textbooks.
- (6) The teacher must try to fire up the dead pupil.
- (7) "Innocency of words" is a prevalent condition of soul deadness.
- (8) This innocency must give way to visualizing power through
 - a.* The dictionary habit;
 - b.* The cultivation of imagination and feeling;
 - c.* The utilizing of life experiences;
 - d.* Slow reading and quick thinking.

- (9) The student must learn to appreciate differences of value — to discriminate — in his reading and study.
- (10) He must also get into the habit of seizing upon the few essential, general facts, and seeing how the many particulars serve merely the purpose of explanation and illustration.
- (11) He must learn to recognize the people and the things that are alike: thus he will be able to reduce them all to a few classes.
- (12) Association of things related, similar, or contemporary is helpful and interesting.
- (13) Study should register itself in memory, but in the student's own words and phrases rather than in those of the author.
- (14) A *preview*, judiciously directed by the teacher, is often better than a review.

3. Conclusion

When all teachers become real helpers, all citizens will become real students.

NOTE 1. The analytical outline, or summary, given above is intended not only to aid the pupil in getting the gist of this chapter, but also to suggest and illustrate what may be done by the pupil himself with the other chapters of this book and with other books. Making such analyses will do much to develop study power.

NOTE 2. The following books will be found helpful in connection with the subject of this chapter: Earhart's "Teaching Children to Study"; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston; and McMurry's "How to Study and Teaching How to Study"; published by the same house.

CHAPTER XVI

THE DYNAMICS OF HISTORY-TEACHING

IN the world of matter a dynamo stands for power and a source of power. It converts mechanical energy into electrical energy, or *vice versa*, by means of magnetic induction. It is capable of serving either as a generator or as a motor.

Without attempting to carry parallels too far, let us consider a few that are obvious. In the world of spirit a dynamo is a person of power, or a combination of active powers in a person. Such a person converts intellectual energy into moral energy, or *vice versa*, by means of magnetic induction. A human dynamo is capable of serving either as a generator or as a motor. As a matter of fact, every dynamic person is likely to be both a generator and a motor.

Every teacher should be a human dynamo. Every schoolroom should be a magnetic field. Every pupil that enters that magnetic field should feel the thrill of transmitted energy, and in due time have within himself the activities that generate and the powers that move.

It matters little what you call this power: the essential thing is for you to have it and to communi-

cate it. Call it, if you please, magnetic personality ; call it moral force ; call it human interest ; call it soul power ; call it the gift to inspire ; call it unconscious intuition ; call it the ability to arouse interest and ambition ; but try to get it and try to exert it.

One day, nearly a century ago, in a little Virginia town, a boy stood before a teacher. The boy was poor ; he was ignorant ; he was meanly clad. But he had in his soul some divine fire. That teacher stirred the fire. That seems to have been about all he did, for he saw the boy only two or three times. But, for his part, that was enough. In the years that followed the uncouth boy became a great scholar, a great teacher, a master of many arts, a master of thought, a light in literature. His name, Joseph Salyards, has been a household word in northern Virginia for two generations.

How can we account for this remarkable transformation? Salyards himself gave the explanation when, as an old man, full of years and honors, he wrote to his old teacher. He said, " You inspired me."

There is telling, there is teaching, there is touching. I am speaking now of touching. Those persons who stand in schoolrooms and talk, while all the time their thoughts and desires and interests are outside, are mere tellers. They might be replaced with phonographs without serious loss. Those persons who bring some light into schoolrooms, but go away leav-

ing them still cold, are perhaps teachers. They inform their pupils with facts, they let in the light to that degree, but the source of light never gets near enough, somehow, to fire the child's soul. His deepest feelings, his strongest energies, are not aroused. But that man, that woman, whose soul speaks a language that the child's soul answers to is a toucher. And the toucher is, after all, the real teacher. The power to touch is the supreme test of the teacher. Socrates and Jesus and all great teachers have done their greatest work and exerted their most far-reaching influence through their heart-touching power.

A few years ago I listened to an address delivered before a large educational gathering by my friend, Professor Edwin Mims, of Vanderbilt University. His subject was "Mechanics and Dynamics in Education." It seemed to me then, it has seemed to me ever since, that he brought two great worlds of truth into balance in those two terms, as he defined them: mechanics and dynamics. Comprehended under mechanics are buildings, systems, schedules, materials, equipment; concentrated under dynamics we find the inspiring personality of the teacher, the vital and moving interests of the subjects taught, and the unconquerable spirit of high aim and achievement in the pupil.

Professor Mims himself is one of the finest examples of pedagogical dynamics personally incarnated that it has been my privilege to know. It is always a

privilege to know a dynamic teacher. If there was good foundation for the fancy that pictured a log with a boy on one end of it as a university, because Mark Hopkins was made to sit at the other end, then verily Mark Hopkins must have been a dynamic teacher. His teaching would doubtless have driven that boy to the ends of the earth, if necessary, to find what his spirit craved.

The greatest teacher it has ever been my privilege to know was Dr. Noah Knowles Davis, for many years professor of moral philosophy at the University of Virginia. He embodied a number of notable qualities: knowledge of facts, wide experience of life, the gift of making abstruse things concrete and simple, and a marked facility in apt illustration; but I believe that most of his old pupils will agree with me when I say that his greatest power was that indefinable thing we call personality. It was apparently made up in his case of a fierce, unflinching justice, balanced by the keenest sympathy; unerring logic, balanced by unfailing poetry; scientific reserve and caution, balanced by a terrible earnestness, a burning enthusiasm. He taught his young men great truth, but the flaming touch of his great spirit drove them forth to find greater truth.¹

¹ Reference may appropriately be made here to the following addresses, printed in the N. E. A. Proceedings of 1908, pp. 108-128: "The Personal Touch in Teaching," by A. F. West; and "The Personal Power of the Teacher in Public School Work," by W. H. Maxwell.

For the history teacher mechanics may include a place of work, the schoolroom, let us say ; historical maps, books of history, pictures, relics, and a graded course of study. Dynamics would be the moving forces of human interest, gathered from the human race, that drive the souls of teacher and pupil forward along the ways of light and life.

What, now, for me, if I am a teacher of history, is "starting the dynamo"?

It is getting the pupil intelligently interested in history. It is getting him vitally interested, so that in due time he will generate interest for himself, and will not need to be led on by another. It is getting him interested in human life, through history, so that he will thereby enter into fellowship with the race in all of its normal aims and activities. It is giving him such an undying ambition to be somebody of worth, and to do something worth while, that he will never be content in idleness or in selfishness, but will strive as a man to contribute his due portion to the welfare of society.

In the next place, how is the dynamo to be started?

Whether it is started or not will depend in a measure on what the teacher knows ; in greater measure, on what she can do ; in greatest measure, on what she is.

Skillful adaptation of topics, of books, of construction work, and attractive presentation of men, women, and children in story and in biography will be almost

certain to win the child's attention and develop his liking for such work and such acquaintances. Such a liking on his part is the birth of interest, and is a guarantee of his further effort in continual seeking and acquiring.

Liking, interest, enthusiasm, are more readily caught than taught. How fortunate it is that virtues and graces are just as contagious as vices and diseases! Accordingly, the teacher of history, of anything, needs not only knowledge of his subject and skill in imparting the facts of that subject, including the ability to direct study, but he also needs enthusiasm in his subject, a spirit of happy contagion. He must himself find delight in doing what he asks the pupil to do.

The teacher that arouses in his pupil a deep and abiding interest in history succeeds in the most vital point, in whatever else he may fail; on the other hand, the teacher that provokes in his pupil a dislike for the subject fails in the worst way, even though he fix a thousand facts. If history were something to be passed off and then cast off, it might not be so; but history portrays and interprets life, and is needed for life in every generation.

Does any one inquire, Why has this chapter been held back until now? or, Why was it not put first? Let answer be made: The need of arousing the pupil's interest has been indicated repeatedly in preceding chapters, but the subject has been reserved for special

treatment here for two reasons. First, it is hoped that here some accumulated notions may add emphasis to what is deemed of so much importance. Second, it is about the end of the grades or the beginning of the high school that the interests of the child must expand into the interests of the youth. Somewhere here are dawns of great awakening. Somewhere here is a mystic borderland, fringed with fancies, haunted more or less with phantoms, but lighted day and night with fair, far visions, in which the stars of hope kiss all the hills of promise. These are dynamic days. Impulses and aims do here take deep hold of life.

CHAPTER XVII

WHY SOME PUPILS DISLIKE HISTORY

It is true, we all know, that some pupils do not like history. When it is true, the matter presents rather serious problems in every case. It means that both teacher and pupil are going to encounter unnecessary difficulties. It may mean discouragement and failure to both. At the very best, so long as the pupil does not like history he is not going to study it with avidity or appreciation. He may have to be driven to it to study it at all, and this may mean that he will be driven away from it with an everlasting dislike, if not disgust. All this means vital loss to the pupil. As for the teacher, it means failure in some degree. At the least, it increases her work and multiplies her difficulties and discouragements.

It is certainly worth while, then, to find out if we can why some pupils dislike history, especially if by doing so we can in any measure cure their dislike or, much better still, prevent it.

To find out the truth of the matter, I have been able to think of no better way than asking the pupils themselves. Accordingly, I have made a special canvass for several years past, and have interrogated

hundreds of different students, from various parts of the country, on this particular point and related matters.

I have asked them these questions:—

“ Do you like history, or do you not like it? ”

“ If you like it, why do you like it? ”

“ If you do not like it, why not? ”

Here are some of the most significant answers given by those who said they did not like history:—

“ I did not find it interesting.”

“ I had never seen any historical places.”

“ I did not know why I was studying it.”

“ My teacher did not like it.”

“ I was entered too high.”

“ I was given a book too hard for me.”

When a large number said that they did not find history interesting, they perhaps really said about this: “ I did not like history because I did not like it.” But the sad fact still remains that they did not like it. Moreover, a number of them gave some master-keys to the situation. For example, one said, “ It was not interesting — the teacher merely *heard* the lesson.” Another said, “ My teacher just taught me facts and dates, without any stories or interesting things.” Another, “ It was presented to me in a very difficult form.” Another, “ The teacher did not make it interesting.” And so on. Is there not a secret here revealed? Whisper it softly: The main fault lay with the teacher!

This disclosure may be rather crushing to the teacher's pride; but after all is not the situation fortunate? Is it not much better to find that the trouble is due to a temporary aberration in a few teachers than to find it due to a constitutional defect in the pupils? Certainly it is easier to reach the intelligent teacher, who is anxious to solve the problem, than it is to reach the unthinking pupil, who frequently does not care whether he likes history or not. Moreover, if the fault be in the teacher, reaching the teacher effectively will cure the ills for all concerned. Curing the teacher is healing the nation.

When so many different persons, without any chance for malicious collusion, say the same thing and thus agree that it was the teacher's failure when history was not interesting, it behooves the earnest teacher to be patient and listen. Thus may he profit. Can we wonder that when the teacher merely "hears the lesson," or presents facts in a difficult form, or requires the pupil to memorize one section after another, or brings in "only what is in the book," or does not like history himself, the pupil should find the subject lacking attractiveness and interest? Under such conditions it would be a wonder, indeed, if the boy or girl did like history.

But please observe that all these unfortunate conditions are things for which the teacher is responsible, and which he can change for the better if he will.

But may we not blame the parents if the boy is "entered too high"? or censure the school board or the state department if the textbook is too hard and dry? Perhaps, a little. But after all, my fellow teacher, you and I are still guilty. If the child is put into this or that grade, or this or that class, when he ought to be in a lower place, you and I have had something to do with it. If the book is too hard for him, we cannot justify ourselves by saying the state has done it, or the local board has done it, and I cannot help it. It is the teacher's business to help just such things, among many others. If the boy and the book do not fit together, let us hold the boy back a little, or hold the book back a little. If we cannot do either, let us make the book easy for him, or hold him responsible at first for only the easier parts of it.

A short time ago I had a very interesting conference with a young lady who told me that in her childhood she had "just hated history." The main trouble, she thought, was with the textbook that had been forced into her hands. "It was too hard for me," she said; "I could not understand it, and of course I could not get interested in it. I have only recently overcome my dislike for history, and I have just within the last few days come to take a real pleasure in that old book which (along with my teacher) I blame for my childhood troubles with history."

“ I am glad,” said I, “ that you have at last been able to use that old book with pleasure. May I ask what use you have been making of it ? ”

Said she, “ I have been cutting it up and using the pictures in my notebook.”

Poor teachers and dry, misfit books! Here are the two chief reasons for uninterested pupils. The former reason is personal and responsible. It must shoulder the latter.

Fortunately there are in history so many forces that thrillingly appeal to the human mind and heart that both the reasons just mentioned, a poor teacher and a juiceless or misfit textbook, are usually required in combination to kill out the spirit and interest of the normal boy or girl. Fortunately, again, it does not often happen that these two evils are found in company; but by a saving mercy of Providence the combination usually encountered is this: Good book plus bad teacher; or this: Bad book plus good teacher. Accordingly, a guilty pedagogue is often overshadowed and partly redeemed by a good textbook; and sometimes an otherwise impossible book is recreated and made interesting by a good teacher.

Happily, another ground of hope is found here. I have ascertained, from a number of cases investigated, that, although the child's dislike for history sometimes lasts through life, it is generally possible for the unfortunate pupil to displace in later years

his early indifference or aversion with a real and permanent interest. This desirable change of attitude may usually be hastened by a better teacher, who unfolds skillfully the wonderful human kindness of history to the quickening and awakening spirit of youth. I believe that only a very few cases of dislike for history are altogether incurable. In these few it is the abnormalities of the patient rather than the unskill of the doctor or the inefficacy of the remedies that block the way. So much for the teacher's consolation.

Having enumerated in the beginning of this chapter some of the things that cause pupils to dislike history, things to be avoided by the teacher, let us catalogue now some of the things that have been credited with an effect in arousing interest in and liking for the subject. Here are a few. They all have been mentioned specifically by large numbers of students.

"I love humanity, and hence am interested in things that people have done and are doing."

"I was blessed with a better teacher."

"It is a beautiful subject. It brings before us noble men and women, engaged in noble and wonderful work."

"The teacher was interested and made it interesting to me."

"It is related to literature."

"It helps to explain and appreciate our present civil and social conditions."

"It incites to noble effort."

“ It is real life.”

“ It shows that the right usually triumphs in the long run.”

For students in normal schools the following statements are of special interest and significance :—

“ The interest of my own pupils has stimulated my interest.”

“ I see the part history plays in education.”

“ It furnishes me with illustrations.”

“ I am interested in history because I wish to be able to teach history successfully.”

It is suggested to the student and teacher that there is an intimate relation between the matter of this chapter, particularly the latter part of it, and Chapter XVI. History itself is a subject of vital and comprehensive interests. The normal boy and girl, the earnest man and woman, will naturally respond to these interests when they feel in any appreciable measure their essence and force. With so many good books as we have now from which to choose, it would seem that almost any teacher of fair equipment and average power ought to be able to lead the pupil around and past the bogs of dislike into the fair lands of historical light and promise. The best way to avoid dislike is to keep so busy over the attractive things that the child will never know that anybody ever was discouraged over history. When he becomes a man he will put away childish things, but he will not put away history.

CHAPTER XVIII

WHY SOME PUPILS FAIL ON EXAMINATIONS

SOME pupils fail through their own faults; some, through the faults of their teachers.

When pupils fail through the errors of their teachers the latter are probably guilty of one or more of the following faults: (1) Premature promotion; (2) poor or inadequate teaching; (3) impossible examination questions; (4) bad wording of questions; or, (5) unreasonable grading of answers.

Frequently pupils are promoted to a grade or admitted to a school upon too little preparation. This is perhaps generally the fault of the teacher below, but it often spells failure for the teacher (as well as the pupil) above. Poor teaching means "poor teacher"; but inadequate teaching may be done by a good teacher if the pupil's preparation be deficient or the time allowed for the course of instruction be too short. Too many things attempted and too little time in school are responsible for most of the present-day failures in American education. Impossible examination questions are sometimes given, and answers are occasionally graded with unreasonableness. The explanation for

this usually is that the teacher is young, or without experience, or has so little common sense as to try to get college work from grammar-grade students. Bad wording of questions is a frequent fault, not peculiar to any grade or rank. From the kindergarten to the university, occasional knots in the teacher's English present stumblingblocks to the pupil's reason.

Teachers, of course, ease their consciences upon the assumption that most pupils who fail on examinations do so because of their own faults or deficiencies. Perhaps this is true. At any rate, various lacks and confusions on the pupil's part are certainly factors in the result in many instances. Some of these lacks and confusions may be stated as follows:

1. Lack of native ability.
2. Lack of knowledge.
3. Confusion of knowledge.
4. Unfortunate and unfamiliar similarities.
5. "Innocency of words."
6. Indiscriminate reading — lack of attention to detail — a phase of the "American habit."

1. **Some pupils fail simply because they do not have the native ability to do exacting mental work.** — I do not refer to the so-called defectives, but to those students who, to all general appearances, are up to the average in intellectual capacity, but who habitually fall somewhat below in every test. There are always a few such in every school; and they, of

course, have great difficulty in doing the work that is easy to the brilliant student and generally possible to the normal student.

2. Obviously, outright lack of knowledge is the common misfortune of the pupils who fail. — Lack of knowledge is indicated by blank spaces upon the examination paper, by the frank confession, “I don’t know,” or by an answer like the following:—

“The purpose of the Omnibus Bill was to keep foreigners out of our land; author Braddock.”

The pupil who gave this answer was a hard student, and not a “defective” by any means; but she simply did not know the facts. Apparently, however, she thought that she knew the facts. She did know some facts, but they were much confused.

3. Confusion of knowledge. — This, I believe, is more frequently the cause of poor answers than sheer lack of knowledge. Confusion of facts may, indeed, be reduced to lack of knowledge; but under this head I wish to leave “blanks” out of consideration and call attention to answers that have some sense mixed with a good deal of nonsense. All the examples given in this chapter are real cases that have come under my own personal notice. All of them but one have been found upon papers collected in my own classes during a period of about fifteen years.

Here are some examples of answers that show some knowledge of facts, but indicate that the things known

were almost as worthless as if they had been entirely unknown, being involved in hopeless confusions :—

1. "St. Augustine, Florida, is the oldest city in the world."

2. "John Randolph was the father of Pocahontas."

3. "James Hargreaves, in 1767, invented the Spinning Jenny. He got his idea from a machine called a mule. The name Jenny is suggested by the mule."

4. "The Charter Oak was in North Carolina. The settlers had left, and when they returned they only found the word 'Croatan' on this oak."

5. "A party platform is a place where the men get together and decide by a number of votes who will serve best in office of any kind."

6. "Robert Bruce was the head leader in the rebellion for Whales independence."

7. "Byzantine Empire was the most important part of Europe. Byzan was their leader."

8. "The first group of Indians were on the east coast, the second up around the Great Lakes, and the third, who were in the west, called themselves the Totems."

9. "Islam was a young girl who, at the age of 18, married Philip. He married her for her property. The next day he wanted a divorce. Her people objected and appealed to the Pope. It was never known why he disliked her. He treated her very cruelly."

Please remember that these answers were not given by "defectives," but by young persons of fair intelligence. They were not incapable, but merely confused as to facts.

A field of frequent confusion is discovered in the realm of biography, when an attempt is made to fix identities and names. For example, when a class in American history was asked to write in a column the names of ten Federal generals, and opposite it a similar list of Confederate generals, "Gates" and "Sheridan" were written in the latter column. In the lists on other papers were confusions just as remarkable.

If the cases I have cited were without parallels, they ought not to be given at all. If I alone had found such answers to my questions, the thing for me to do would be to look only to my own errors. It would mean that I am a poor teacher, and nothing more. But it means something more because other teachers find the same sort of confusions upon the papers they receive from their pupils. Because such confusions are common, and could be duplicated in kind many times over in nearly every school, they have a general interest for teachers, and perhaps have a rather far-reaching significance in present-day education.¹

As already remarked in the beginning of Chapter X, history is one of the subjects that seem to present special difficulties. Why is it that so many pupils

¹ A recent investigation conducted by H. W. Craven in the schools of Seattle, Washington, revealed conditions that were surprising, and which would be fairly suggested by the examples given above. Conditions in Seattle were probably typical of those in many other places.

fail in history — even in the history of their own country?

First, there are many poor teachers of history in our land. It has been a common error to suppose that almost anybody will do to teach history. Consequently, many persons even now trying to teach history have no special qualifications for the task, and have had no adequate training for it.

Second, history is not an easy little subject, as many people suppose. It is a great subject, as big as the world, as old as the race, as varied as the nations, as comprehensive as life. It is a subject of four dimensions, if you please.

Third, the need of thorough and accurate knowledge of history has not been sufficiently recognized, not to say emphasized, by our school authorities and the public in general. It is assumed that arithmetic, algebra, physics or chemistry, French or Latin, and other subjects, must be studied; and then it is possibly conceded that history may be studied if there is a place for it.

Fourth, insufficient time is allowed for thorough work in the schools. This is the main reason why pupils lack knowledge of history, and why the facts they have laid hold upon are so often in such hopeless confusion. It takes a long time to learn history. To learn history one must learn geography — become familiar with many places, here and there, separated by wide distances. To learn history

one must learn biography — get well acquainted with a large number of men and women, living at different places, in different times, and engaged in different enterprises. To learn history one must study out the causes, characters, and consequences of numerous events, varying in nature, interest, and importance. And to learn history one must grasp the ever changing and ever moving front of time, and fix the dates of many important events that seem scattered with provoking elusiveness over the long centuries.

Recognizing these facts, which are self-evident and indisputable, and considering the crowded curricula of our schools and the desperate rush that is continually on to “get through” with it all and rush into something else, can we wonder any more why pupils do not have a more complete and orderly knowledge of history?

The cardinal sin of American education to-day is the overcrowding of curricula. Some so-called educators are trying to cut the school life down, and make it a year or two shorter; others are trying to put in more subjects; pupils are trying to graduate “with their classes”; teachers are trying to push them through on schedule time; great truths are being “smattered” and nerves are being shattered. It is time the current were setting the other way. Nature made the school life of man some twenty years or more. Man himself is trying to cut down

the time and crowd into the task of study many more things than nature ever dreamed of. In cutting down school life we are cutting down life. We are making a nation of incapables by trying to do too many things in the time at our disposal, which is short at the most. We can as easily grow an oak in full strength, proportion, and beauty in twenty years as we can educate a man adequately in ten or fifteen. Education is largely a process of growth. For growth — whether in an oak or a man — time, much time, is necessary.

If history is not worth the time necessary to master it, let us throw it out of the curriculum, and thus gain time for other subjects that are worth while. Not mastered, it is not of full value; to master it the average pupil needs more time than he is frequently allowed. If there is nothing else to do, let us throw out of American schools all history but American history; but if we are going to study history at all, let us take a fair chance for mastering at least a small field of it. Let us give the pupil a fair chance to learn the facts, to get them into their right places and right relations, and to become so familiar with them that they can be used without confusion.

4. Unfortunate and unfamiliar similarities. — In many cases a pupil's confusion regarding persons, places, and incidents in history is led into greater mazes by some unlucky suggestion in the examina-

tion question. Here are some illustrations of this sort of thing:—

1. "South Carolina was seceded to the Union in 1860."

Herein is an evident confusion of "seceded" with "ceded."

2. "In 1844 the Morris telegraph was invented."

In this we see a confusion of the unfamiliar name "Morse" with the more familiar name "Morris."

3. "The Spanish Main was blown up in Havana harbor by the Spaniards."

The confusion here is obvious.

4. "Wampum is something like a wigwam."

5. "A trust is an organization supposed to be entirely reliable in every way."

6. "In 1692 Benjamin Franklin discovered that lightning was electricity worked by friction."

The foregoing was an answer given to the question: "What of witchcraft in 1692?"

7. "George Calvert was the founder of the Calvinists."

8. "Sulla was a great general and leader of the nobles during the strife between the Plebeians and the Patriarchs."

9. "We should see the seven hills upon which Rome is built, the Palatine, Aventine, Quirinal, etc.; also the Appian Way, one of the main thoroughfares. Famous buildings seen would be the Parthenon, temple to all the

gods, Circus Maximus, the temple to the goddess Athene, etc.”

Pupils frequently confuse the Parthenon and the Pantheon.

10. “George Mason helped to draw up the boundary line between Dixie and Mason.”

11. “Wat Tylor was a great historian.”

The pupil who wrote this answer probably lived near Williamsburg, Virginia.

12. “John Hampten: a great minister in the Hampten Court Conference.”

Mt. Vernon was put in Vermont probably because of the suggestion contained in “Ver”; Vicksburg in “Mass.” because of the clutch that “Miss.” had once made; and for some such reasons, too, many pupils have said that Mt. Vernon was Washington’s birthplace.

In a certain book it is stated that the bishops who refused to acknowledge Elizabeth’s supremacy in the church lost their sees. Unlucky suggestion made a young lady who was asked to explain the statement say, “They lost their eyes.”

A particular thing that almost invariably gives trouble is “strict” and “loose” construction. It is so natural to associate “strictness” with strength in the Federal authority that the average pupil will aver that the strict constructionists wanted to give

all the power possible to the national government, and that the loose constructionists wanted a weak national government.

Sometimes these unlucky confusions blossom into real wit — innocent wit, no doubt. For example, one pupil wrote: "A protective tariff is a tax on incomes." Another said, "General Bee was a general who made a bee line to Boston to aid Washington." Of course it was a young lady who wrote of the *Concord Hymn* as the "Conquered Him." "What was the Sherman Act?" was answered thus: "Marching through Georgia."¹

5. "Innocency of words." — Herein we find a prolific cause of failure on examinations — and on everything else. When a pupil writes "Jackson's policy of civil service was that no one should go into the war who had not good health and was trained," we sigh in real despair and exclaim, "What innocency!" Such childlike (or childish) simplicity regarding the meaning of common words in our mother tongue is indeed painful. It might be amusing if it were found in only a few cases; but it appears so often that it is really distressing. Here are other examples: —

¹ The last example appeared on a history paper that I received in the summer of 1910. Shortly afterward it gained rather wide currency through the "funny page" of a popular magazine. I was not responsible for the publicity given it at that time.

1. "Charlemagne was the founder of the Dooms day book."

2. "A noted French discoverer was Champlain who founded Lake Champlain."

3. "The tobacco rebellion was when they brought it from England and over here and showed the people over here how to raise tobacco."

4. "The Erie Canal was discovered in 1765."

Innocency of words usually means poverty of ideas. For example, notice how a single adjective seems to fill the world for the pupil who, to a question regarding the character of certain kings, writes thus : —

"Charles I was a good king.

"Charles II was a good king.

"John was not a good king.

"Alfred was a good king.

"Alfred II was not a very good king.

"Edward I was a good king."

Innocency of words and poverty of ideas frequently seize upon the phraseology of the question in the vain effort to express themselves. That is to say, the pupil, in his attempt at an answer, merely says over what the teacher has said in the question itself, and complacently imagines that he has answered the question, or at least said something. Here is an example.

Question: "Show definitely why it is necessary for the teacher of history to be familiar with the subject matter in order to be skillful in method."

Answer: "The teacher must be familiar with subject matter in order to teach history successfully."

This is an actual case, and the answer is more or less typical of a large class. It is such fatal innocency as this that enables the pupil to say over the words of his lesson without seeing what they mean; to listen to the teacher in the class room without understanding what he says; and to write answers (?) to examination questions without knowing that he has said practically nothing or something that is absurd upon its own face.

6. Indiscriminate reading. — By indiscriminate reading I mean reading without marking meanings and differences. Beginning in the first grade, and continuing therefrom, the child naturally endeavors to read with thoughtfulness and understanding; and his teachers all along the line should be able to strengthen his effort in this respect. To read properly is to interpret speech and to lay hold of the treasures others would give us. Even in the first grade, imagination and thought may be quickened and developed in the reading process; and if the child reaches the grammar school without being able to see wondrous forms and vital relationships through printed words, his teachers must be charged with incompetence or negligence. But placing the responsibility upon them will not relieve him of the resulting handicap.

This indiscriminate reading, such as too often

handicaps the pupil in the upper grades and in the high school, is due to poor training and bad habit rather than to deficient intelligence. Lack of attention to detail is a phase of the American habit of haste and halfwayism. It is this habit that breaks up our nerves and robs us of many an excellence. We do not fully appreciate the fact that the difference between mediocrity and excellence consists only of small points — of slight touches. We try to grasp things wholesale rather than in detail. We learn to read and spell on words and sentences, and get blind spots for letters and commas. We buy a coat without trying the buttons, and a house without inspecting the locks and latches. We gulp a book a page at a time; we guess the contents of the newspaper from the headlines; we estimate a man's consequence by the size of his automobile; we build a tower without testing the foundation; we try to lift society without touching the individual.

The boy in school has caught the fashion. He sweeps his glance over the examination question as a whole, and misses altogether or fails to mark the crucial words. He dashes down an answer, never taking the pains to see whether it will fit the question or not. He must hurry on to the next.

Innocency of words and indiscriminate reading are of course intimately related, but a distinction may be made. In the former the pupil does not know

what the words mean ; in the latter he does not take the pains to note carefully the meanings that might be plain to him.

“ What are you hauling? ” I said one day to a little boy with red cheeks and a new express wagon. He replied, “ Out at de Normal School,” and seemed well pleased with himself.

“ Who was John Marshall? ” I wrote on the black-board the next day, in giving a quiz to the history class ; and this is what a young lady wrote in answer : “ John Marshall was born at Germantown, in 1755. He was educated at home until he began studying law.”

The little boy was an indiscriminate hearer. He either misunderstood the question, or failed to perceive that “ what ” cannot be answered as if it were “ where.” The young lady was an indiscriminate reader. She did not see that “ who ” does not call for place, time, or process. Such words as “ what,” “ who,” “ where,” “ when,” “ why,” and “ how ” are like index fingers, pointing the mind to highways of thought ; but many a pupil passes them heedlessly. It is as if he should walk into a strange city without noting or heeding the street names, the door numbers, the motorman’s gong, or the policeman’s signal.

What are some of the lessons from all these things for the teacher and the school official, as well as for the pupil?

1. The pupil needs more time for the mastery of history.

2. The appreciative understanding of English is necessary to the successful study of history or anything else in which the pupil must get many facts from books.

3. The pupil must be taught to observe carefully and to pay due regard to detail. Careless reading or slipshod statements, either in speech or in writing, should not be tolerated.

4. The teacher should take special pains to distinguish names and terms that are so much alike as to lead readily to confusion.

5. If the examination is counted as a vital factor in determining the pupil's standing, he should be given training in the answering of such questions as he will have to answer on examination, in order that some of his bad habits may be corrected against the fateful day. And he needs practice in written expression. If he is required to give only oral answers during the term, he can hardly be expected to do himself justice in a written test at the end of the term.¹

¹ In the *History Teacher's Magazine*, November, 1913, is an interesting article by Edgar Dawson entitled, "Mortality in History Examinations and its Causes."

CHAPTER XIX

MAKING AND USING HISTORY QUESTIONS

EVERY teacher of history will of course use questions, and should use many of them, oral and written. The intelligent child, if interested, will ask questions, *ad infinitum*; and he in turn should be called upon to answer a great many, even from the first grade. The teacher aims at impression, through stories, pictures, objects, and exemplary action; but he must also demand expression, through the retelling of stories, the making of pictures and objects, imitative and imaginative action, and through the frequent answering of questions.

Beginning in the last grades or in the high school, the teacher may gradually adopt the lecture in place of the story, and use that predominantly in the college, the normal school, and the university. In parallel procedure, the pupil may gradually cease his deliberate echoing of the teacher's voice in song and story, and try instead to speak of and for himself in oral and written reports, in formal essays, and in debates; but all the way through, even to the last examination for the Doctor's degree, the world of the teacher and the student is full of ques-

tions, questions, questions, uttered and unuttered, answered and unanswered.

“Where?” is the question of geography; “When?” is the question of chronology; “Who?” is the question of biography and genealogy; “What?” is the question of chemistry and literature; “How?” is the question of sociology as well as of mathematics and mechanics; “Why?” is the question of philosophy; “Whence?” and “Whither?” are the questions of biology and religion; but history needs them all.

“Where?” leads us to the place of wondrous story; “When?” ascertains the year and the day of the great event; “Who?” points to every noble man and woman in every age; “What?” seeks knowledge of every vital relation and every notable deed; “How?” observes processes and searches for the secrets of mastery and skill; “Why?” demands a reason for every thought and act; “Whence?” seeks for origins and beginnings; and “Whither?” has regard to tendency and destiny.

The history teacher, in the instruction and examination of his classes, may put his questions in speech or in writing; but naturally most of them will be oral, especially in the elementary schools. All questions should be stated clearly and as concisely as possible; and in oral work a constant effort should be made to have them definite, pointed, and brief. When a question is written down the pupil

can usually take as much time as may be necessary to look it over; but when it comes flying upon the wings of the wind, and has to be caught upon the senses and held in memory while the same powers and others are searching the world for an answer, it should, in the interests of mercy as well as of pedagogy, be stated in a few words that have a distinct meaning.

In order to set forth certain qualities in questions, some good, some bad, a number of examples are herewith presented. All these examples have been copied, word for word, from standard textbooks on United States history.

Here are several that certainly are embarrassing by reason of their length:—

“What has entitled Marquette, Joliet, and La Salle to their fame and to the gratitude, not only of French Canadians, but of all Americans?”

“How did Benjamin Franklin try to create a common interest and responsibility in all the colonies in this big land quarrel?”

“What were some of the results for good and for evil arising from the indirect relations becoming prevalent between employers and laborers?”

If these questions were used only in written or printed form, to be answered in writing, they might be tolerable; but if they are for oral use, they are certainly not good. They may properly be termed “cumbbersome.” To cumber is to burden, to hamper.

The very size and involved character of these questions would cumber the student while he is groping and struggling for an answer. If fast on paper, they are bad enough; if fired out orally by a nervous teacher, they are altogether impossible to the average pupil. They should be split or chopped into thinner or shorter pieces, and the pieces well pointed.

The temptation to fire a double-barrel gun or a repeating rifle seems often too much for the teacher; and so we are annihilated by such fusillades as the above or cut in two by such chain-shot as the following:—

“What is said of the life in cities and on plantations?”

“Name the two cities most active in carrying on trade between Europe and the Far East, and tell how this traffic was threatened in the fourteenth century.”

“What were the platform and candidates of the Republicans in 1884?”

Each of these questions should be dissected and reconstructed. As to the first, one certainly would think that life in cities is worth a question for itself alone. The answer, to be at all satisfactory, would necessarily be rather long. Just as properly, a question could be devoted wholly to plantation life. The second example also would be much better as two questions, with the division made at the comma after “Far East.”

The third example is worst of all. If the pupil is able to state the national platform of a great

party, he surely ought to be allowed time for breath, and be complimented with a second question: "Who were the candidates?" But as propounded the question is a violation of good form as well as a sin against childhood. In trying to swamp the pupil in the subtleties of politics, the teacher drowns himself in his own English. See what he really says:

"What were the candidates?"

How could any one say, even if he could tell who they were? Obviously, the teacher in this case intended to ask only who they were, but he sacrificed sense in order to economize words. The chances are that most of the cumbersome questions found in books are largely the result of an ill-advised effort to save paper and printer's ink. But if the questions that slip into standard books are thus and so, what must be true of thousands that are never tried at all by any standards?

Here are two more examples of questions of such great content that they ought to be divided:—

"What objections were raised even by wise men, and what mistakes had Columbus made in his calculations?"

"In general, what conditions in the old world made so many people dissatisfied there, and what conditions in the new world drew so many to its shores?"

If such questions are overwhelming in their magnitude, the following are apt to take the pupil's breath away by the rapidity of their dancing variety:—

“Why, how, and when did Fort Sumter fall?”

“When, why, and where did the Swedes begin to settle in America?”

“Where, when, why, and by whom was the Line of Demarcation established?”

These questions, please remember, are all in the books. Pray, let us leave them there. If we use them in the class room, let us break them up and administer them a piece at a time. In comic drama they may serve a good purpose entire. They remind us of the downpour of interrogations that fell all at once upon the defenseless head of Cinna the Poet, in the hour when Cæsar died:—

“What is your name, whither are you going, where do you dwell, are you a married man or a bachelor? Answer every man directly, ay, and briefly, ay, and wisely, ay, and truly.”

In framing questions the teacher should be careful to choose words with clear-cut meaning and to put words and phrases in their proper places. Here are some illustrations of failures in these respects:—

“Did the fear of British arms by European nations make these colonies more secure from Dutch, Spanish, or French attack in America?”

“What was the new law concerning the counting of the electoral vote passed in 1887?”

In the first example the word “arms” is of indefinite meaning. Probably it is used to mean the

British military power; but the pupil might naturally suppose that it means rifles or pistols or swords.

In the second example the arrangement of the parts of the sentence stands in the way of clear meaning. Written down, and punctuated thus, it would possibly be clear:—

“What was the new law, concerning the counting of the electoral vote, passed in 1887?”

But if this question were spoken, it might still be misleading or confusing. Would it not be better thus?

“What was the new law, passed in 1887, concerning the counting of the electoral vote?”

Clearness and definiteness are not always best secured by conciseness and brevity. Note the following question:—

“How was the national debt reduced from 1801 to 1811?”

Despite absurdities and impossibilities, somebody would take this question literally, and try to reduce 1801 to 1811. In such a case it would probably be advisable to put in another word or two, and make the question stand thus:—

“How was the national debt reduced during the period from 1801 to 1811?”

There are some questions that may well be termed “questions of complacency.” The questioner is

evidently well satisfied with himself, just as he is. He shuts one eye to ask the question, and he expects the pupil to shut one eye to answer it. Here are some examples:—

“Why did the *Monitor* beat the *Merrimac*?”

“What French names still remain where these settlements were made?”

“What four causes led up to this panic?”

In the first of these the questioner is apparently shutting his eye to this: “Did the *Monitor* beat the *Merrimac*?” which is still a question with a good many persons.

In the second example it is implied that one may readily list all the French names that still remain around the Great Lakes and in the Mississippi Valley, an implication that can hardly be allowed. The question would mean more and be more true stated thus:—

“What are some of the French names that still remain where these settlements were made?”

In the third example is a similar implication. The panic of 1837 perhaps had more than four causes. It is a mistake to allow a child to get the notion that, when he has mentioned certain familiar things, he has exhausted all possibilities in the matter. Because of such misimpressions many children suppose that “taxation without representation” was the sole cause of the American Revolution.

Questions that suggest unmistakably their own answers are not worth much. Here are some of this sort :—

“Was it necessary to make the paper notes legal tender?”

“Was it easy to decide whether to be a patriot or a loyalist?”

A good guesser would be pretty certain of hitting either one of these, although the second seems to call for more thought than the first.

Here is a question that looks like a boomerang :—

“When an attack upon the South along the coast failed, how did the British attempt to attack the colonies in the rear?”

It seems to fly back into your face about the time you are getting ready to say something. In other words, the last phrase of the question seems to contain the answer. Just what it means, or is intended to call forth, I do not know. I only know that it is found in a standard textbook, and I fear that many teachers of history are employing it or others just as bad.

It is not necessary that every question be startling or striking, any more than it is necessary for the landscape to be all peaks and mountain ranges. We have need of the commonplace in education just as in the landscape and in life. For example, the first questions about any subject or topic may naturally be simple, or deal with simple phases of

the subject; those that demand more penetrating or more summary answers may just as naturally come later. Nothing herein is to be construed, however, as meaning that the teacher shall not, if he choose, use a striking or startling question as the very first in a series for the purpose of arousing attention.

Not all questions in a series need to be of equal importance. In fact, it would be impossible to make them all of equal importance if they refer consistently to the different phases of the subject; for obviously the different phases of every subject are of different degrees of interest and value. Some very commonplace questions may serve a good purpose in calling for commonplace facts which, although they are not of tremendous significance, ought to be known.

Some questions should call for facts — make a demand upon the stores of memory; some should call for a process of thought — make a demand upon the reasoning powers; some should stimulate the imagination, and hence all the powers of mind and heart; some should call, as it were, for the pupil himself: demand an act of choice and volition, thus requiring a subjective response rather than an objective possession. Every question should present a contest to the pupil, in which he must take hand. He may sit quiet and passive — perhaps indifferent — under the teacher's lecture, but the question leaps up before him with a challenge, and he must become

at once active, or be classed as a dodger or even as a coward. Even if he fail to answer correctly, he may still meet the challenge courageously.

The question with its answer opens the gate to the pupil's thought and soul, and lets the teacher look in. It should do so. It should reveal lacks and needs as well as riches and resources. The question and the answer are an exchange of acquaintance between master and disciple — a bond of sympathy and friendship. Good questioning marks the good teacher just as much as good answering marks the good pupil. Questions are keys to knowledge as well as to souls. They stand continually before the gates of thought, knocking for audience, like messengers from strange lands.

Here is a list of questions that illustrate very well the desirable qualities of brevity, definiteness, and directness. They also form a logical series, one question following another naturally.

1. "What was a 'writ of assistance'?"
2. "Why did the colonists oppose the Stamp Act?"
3. "What was done by the Stamp Act Congress?"
4. "Show some of the forms of opposition to the stamps."
5. "Tell why the repeal of the Stamp Act was not complete."
6. "How did Pitt's illness hasten the Revolution?"
7. "Describe Townshend's threefold plan for taxing America."

8. "Of what use was the Adams circular letter?"
9. "Why was the tea tax a blunder?"
10. "How did the colonials learn of each other's plans?"¹

Such questions test the pupil's knowledge of the text. They call for facts known or to be known — objective realities, possessed or to be possessed. They seem to make their chief demand upon the memory, but they also stimulate the imagination and provoke thought.

In the following questions, particularly in No. 3 and No. 5, a strong call is made upon the pupil himself. They seek a response in character. Their aim is subjective development rather than objective acquirement.

1. "What is bribery?"
2. "What shapes may it take?"
3. "What is there wrong about it?"
4. "What instances of bribery, or attempted bribery, are there in American history?"
5. "Why is it an insult to an honest man to offer him a bribe?"²

The subjective value of the following questions is obvious. They make an appeal to choice and volition upon the basis of knowledge and reason.

¹ Meany: "United States History for Schools," pp. 187, 188.

² Fiske: "A History of the United States," p. 305.

“Would you have been a Federalist or a Republican in Washington’s time?”

“Give reasons for your answer.”¹

The teacher, especially the young teacher, had better formulate his questions and reduce them to writing before meeting his class. Impromptu questions are apt to be defective in form, illogical, and badly distributed. Use your own questions with the class in preference to those in the book. The latter are excellent in preparing for class work. Your lesson plan should include your question list, and you should make at least so much of the lesson plan every day.²

¹ Fiske: “A History of the United States,” p. 305.

² The following books, among others, will be found helpful on the subject of questioning: Anonymous: “Analytical Questions in United States History”; A. Flanagan Co.; Chicago; Betts: “The Recitation” (part on “The Art of Questioning”); Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

CHAPTER XX

GRADING QUIZ PAPERS AND EXAMINATION PAPERS

IN essence the written quiz, the written test, and the written examination are the same. The differences consist largely in the terms. In usage, however, the examination is ordinarily a longer and more formal exercise, coming at the end of a quarter or a session; while the test or quiz may be given monthly, weekly, or at irregular intervals. The test, or the quiz, is used not only for the instruction of the pupil, but also to enable the teacher to gauge the pupil's progress and to determine his class standing. Grades made on tests, or class grades determined by tests and otherwise, should be combined with the grade of the final examination and with his other grades, to arrive at a fair estimate of the pupil's knowledge, ability, and growth.

Professor R. H. Dabney, head of the history department of the University of Virginia, makes a daily use of the written quiz in certain of his classes. He has been following this plan for a number of years and has found it attended with most excellent results. Each day, when the class meets for the

hour lecture period, the first ten minutes are devoted to the written quiz. Only two, three, or four questions are given; they are on the day's lesson; and they are always such as can be answered in the limited time. The papers handed in are carefully graded, and each man's marks recorded against his name. At the end of the term the average grade from the daily tests is combined with the examination grade, one counting about as much as the other, and each being essential in the grade required for passing. In other words, if a student does not do reasonably well on both the daily tests and the final examination, he cannot pass. He cannot atone for habitual negligence by a brilliant spurt at the end. On the other hand, if he does good work daily, he is practically certain of the result, because the quiz each day is limited to the lesson of that day; and by preparing regularly each daily lesson he is making the best possible preparation for the final examination. Since Professor Dabney inaugurated this system several years ago he has been able to observe a marked improvement in the work affected by it. A much larger proportion of men pass the courses now than formerly.

Perhaps the most difficult work of all that falls upon the teacher of history is the grading of written answers to written questions. This sort of work is particularly difficult in history and kindred subjects. In mathematics or an exact science most of the questions put to pupils in the schools require

answers that are so fixed and definite that the teacher can say of each one at a glance, "Correct" or "Incorrect." In history, on the other hand, and in all social sciences, many of the lines of fact are not yet clearly drawn, and very few are fixed by anything like universal agreement. In other words, while there is usually but one proper answer to a question in an exact science, there may often be in a social science a number of different answers, all of excellent merit.

There are, of course, certain questions in history and related subjects that have fixed and definite answers, as may readily be shown. Such answers the teacher can easily and quickly grade. Usually in such cases the value of an answer is either 100 or 0, and which it is can be at once determined, for it is a certain name, a fixed date, a definite fact, or a well-known quantity. Here are some examples of such questions, with their answers:—

1. Who was called the "Father of the Constitution"?

Answer: James Madison.

2. When was Lincoln born?

Answer: February 12, 1809.

3. What important artificial waterway was opened from west to east in 1825?

Answer: The Erie Canal.

4. How much money did the United States give Spain for the Philippine Islands, etc.?

Answer: \$20,000,000.

Obviously each of these questions can have but one acceptable answer. All such questions, therefore, will have answers that can at once be marked either at full value or at zero. If the teacher wishes to have an easy time grading papers, or if she wishes to give the members of her class a first lesson in grading their own papers under her direction, she must be careful to ask just such questions.

Not long ago I gave this question to a class in history :—

1. (1) What important machine was invented in 1793 ?
- (2) Who was the inventor ?

Here are some of the answers received, with the grades I gave them, each part of the question being accorded a maximum value of 50 :—

- | | |
|---------------------------|----|
| A. 1. (1) Cotton Gin. | 50 |
| (2) Eli Whitney. | 50 |
| B. 1. (1) The Cotton Gin. | 50 |
| (2) Eli Whitney. | 50 |

This answer is complete and in good form.

- | | |
|--|----|
| C. 1. (1) The cotton gin was invented in 1793. | 50 |
| (2) Eli Whitney was the inventor. | 50 |

A needless lot of words are used here.

- | | |
|---|----|
| D. 1. (1) The important machine invented in 1793 was
the cotton gin. | 50 |
| (2) The inventor was Eli Whitney. | 50 |

Here are more needless words.

Although some of the foregoing answers are in better form than others, it is easy to see that all are the same in substance, and that all are substantially correct. It would be just as easy to see that answers different in substance from these would be altogether incorrect.

But the good teacher of history wishes to ask many questions the answers to which cannot be stated so definitely or be disposed of so readily. As already remarked, many questions in history and related subjects admit of answers widely different in substance as well as in form. Any question that involves judgments from complex conditions, some of which are undetermined, or from more or less unsettled theories, is bound to have a different answer from every different thinker. These answers may agree essentially, differing only incidentally; but they will differ in form of statement at least. Moreover, such a difference in form represents some difference in conception and appreciation, and hence in value. Some answers may agree in part with known facts or accepted conclusions, while disagreeing in part. In such cases credit should be given for the part that is good, and a fair deduction of credit be made for the part that is not good.

The term "good" is here used rather than the term "correct" or "right"; because in many questions of the sort under consideration it will be possible to get a number of good answers, but perhaps

impossible to get one that could properly be termed the right one or the correct one. To use the term "right" or "correct" would imply that there is but one acceptable answer, which is not true.

Who, now, is to evaluate all these differing statements (answers) about different persons, forces, movements, and institutions, concerning all of whom or which there are so many different opinions deserving respect, and so many different things that are true?

The teacher must do it. The teacher, therefore, has a hard task. To perform it well he needs many powers and qualifications: Broad knowledge, penetrating insight, cosmopolitanism, or power of sympathy and adjustment, strict regard for fact, and judicial fairness.

To illustrate the variety of answers that may be expected in many cases, and to indicate the different values that may be assigned to certain answers, more examples are herewith submitted. This question was given to a large class along with the one concerning Eli Whitney and the cotton gin; and the answers here reproduced are stated literally as they were given by different pupils in the class.

2. (1) Who was John Marshall?

(2) How did he make his greatest contribution to American history?

In grading the answers to this question a maximum value of 40 was determined upon for the first part

and 60 for the second part. Here are some of the answers and their respective grades:—

A. 2. (1) A jurist. 35

Not specific enough.

(2) While Chief Justice of the United States he established precedents in the Constitution which have remained so ever since. 50

A word misspelled. He did more than establish precedents.

B. 2. (1) John Marshall was Chief-justice of the United States. 38

Not explicit enough. Form not the best.

(2) John Marshall was a member of the House of Burgesses. He interpreted the Constitution. 50

He was not a member of the House of Burgesses, but of the Virginia legislature.

C. 2. (1) John Marshall was the son of Colonel Thomas Marshall. 30

Not a good identification.

(2) The great contribution Marshall made to the American History was the interpretation of the constitution. 50

“The American History” suggests a book. “Constitution” not capitalized is indefinite.

D. 2. (1) John Marshall was a Virginian. He became Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the U. S. 39

“ U. S. ” here is not good form.

(2) John Marshall interpreted the constitution in such a way that the meaning of it could be understood by the people. He also took a leading part in trying to get US to adopt the Constitution. 40

“ US ” probably means the United States, but the statement would be more applicable to Virginia.

E. 2. (1) John Martial was the Chief Justice of U.S. He served for 35 years. 35

Five points off for bad spelling and bad form.

(2) He added several things to the Constitution that are taken to-day as a precedent. 25

Bad spelling and inaccurate statement, but some truth expressed.

F. 2. (1) John Marshall was a lawyer, and the first chief justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. 30

He was not the first chief justice. John Jay, John Rutledge, and Oliver Ellsworth preceded him.

(2) He expounded and explained the Constitution. He added many things to it that are still in existence. 45

“ And explained ” is repetition. He added nothing to the Constitution literally, though he did add much potentially.

G. 2. (1) John Marshall was Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. 35

“ Supreme Court ” of what?

(2) The distinction of securing the adoption of the Constitution by Virginia was due chiefly to Marshall. He also made the Constitution clear enough (for the first time) that the national government might be understood. 55

H. 2. (1) John Marshall was one of the world's greatest jurists. He was chief justice of the U. S. for thirty-four years. 37

(2) He made his greatest contribution to American history by *expounding* the Constitution in terms that are often used at present, and by making many constitutional decisions which have influenced the present day. 59

“ Which have had an influence to the present day ” would be more exact.

I. 2. (1) John Marshall was born a Virginian. He was a distinguished statesman and was Justice of Supreme Court for thirty-four years. 35

“ Justice ” is inaccurate and “ Supreme Court ” is indefinite. The latter expression might readily be understood as meaning the supreme court of Virginia.

(2) His most noticeable service was in the interpreting and expounding the Constitution. The influence of his decisions and interpretations are felt to-day. 59

“ And expounding ” seems to be repetition.

J. 2. (1) A great American jurist; chief justice of the U. S. Supreme Court, 1801-1835. 40

(2) By his profound interpretation of the Constitution and his momentous decisions in accordance therewith. He won respect for the Court, and set precedents that have fixed national policy and perhaps national destiny. 60

Examples could be multiplied. Obviously, each case must be dealt with individually, upon its merits. Not many rules can be given. The matter in every instance depends upon the teacher—upon the knowledge and good judgment that he is able to make bear upon it. Students preparing to be teachers, especially students in our normal schools, should have some training in the grading of papers, along with other things helpful and necessary to their skill and trustworthiness.¹

¹ An interesting article entitled "Adequate Tests in History," by H. D. Foster, may be found in the *History Teacher's Magazine*, April, 1914.

CHAPTER XXI

THE USE AND THE ABUSE OF DATES

DATES seem to be the disturbing factor in history study; yet if dates were left out of history, everything would be disturbed and in hopeless confusion.

When a pupil imagines that history consists merely of so many dates to be memorized, he is mistaken. When he says, "I can't learn history because I can't remember dates," he is probably mistaken twice: first, in supposing that history consists only of dates; second, in asserting that he cannot remember dates.

Young ladies, especially, are prone to imagine that they cannot remember dates. They are much mistaken. Nearly every girl and nearly every woman has special gifts for remembering dates. Who ever heard of a young lady who forgot a friend's birthday? or a "date" for the opera, even though fixed a month in advance, to the day, the hour, and the minute? or the date of her approaching wedding, though set two years in advance? What woman has ever forgot a wedding day or a birthday, though a score of years in the past? Women are really

geniuses in remembering dates. If they can only find half the interest in historical dates that they have, and have rightfully, in personal dates, the whole matter will be easy for them.

When a teacher makes it appear that dates are history or the essence of history, he is abusing history. When he asserts that dates are the source of all his woes in the teaching of history, he is abusing dates. When he tries to make the child learn all the dates in the chronicle, he is abusing the child.

Let us consider dates in their true light. In books a large number of dates are necessary, and they ought to be at the right places, in plain type. In heads at least a few dates are necessary, and they ought to be just as clear and well placed as those in the books. In both books and heads dates serve as guides, with index fingers, pointing both ways: back into the prolific past, forward into the promising future. Changing the figure, we may think of the system of historical dates as the skeleton that is necessary for a perfect body, keeping all things in place, giving strength, and making possible usefulness and beauty.

Once more, dates in history are like the stars in the heavens. They shine out of the darkness, showing place, relation, and interrelation. A few are of the first magnitude; the others are less in rank by reason of smaller circumstances, or less in brilliancy by reason of greater distances. We do

not attempt to learn all the stars by name — the great majority, perhaps, are nameless; but we do name a few of the chief ones, and learn to know them. In the world of time, as in the world of space, we need to name and know only the great fixed stars — there are no temporal planets. The innumerable lesser dots upon the expanse of the ages may be allowed to fade gradually out of our consciousness, save here and there a path of light — a Clio's milky way.

It would be wrong for the teacher of history to regard all dates as of equal importance, or to allow his pupils to do so. It would be harmful and foolish for him to demand of his class that they remember every date. He should not only know that dates differ in value, but he should also know which particular dates are of most importance; and as he goes through a book with his pupils he should occasionally direct attention to this date or that, and show its significance. At the same time, or at some time, he should call upon his pupils to exercise their own judgment in the selection of important dates.

There are two or three reasons why people forget dates. Perhaps there are four. In the first place, lack of interest in a date makes it harder to remember. But the chief reason why pupils in school and people generally forget dates is this: They have never learned them thoroughly. It is one thing to play at learning dates; it is another thing to grind them

into memory as into granite. When a boy learns a list of dates as thoroughly as some of us years ago had to learn the multiplication table, or as thoroughly as most persons are expected to learn their own names and the names of their friends, he will not soon forget it. If dates are thoroughly learned and occasionally used they will not often be forgotten. We discredit the memory too much nowadays, and hence fail to realize full value from it in many cases.

Another reason why people forget dates, or never learn them thoroughly, is found in the fact, already suggested, that no definite selection of important dates is made for special study. Instead, a half chance is taken at all the dates in the book, indiscriminately, and this usually means failure to fix any of them permanently.

The reasons why history dates are forgotten, therefore, may be put in summary form, as follows:—

1. Lack of interest in them.
2. Lack of thoroughness in learning them.
3. Lack of means for using them.
4. Failure to discriminate between important and non-important dates.

In like manner, the rules for learning and remembering dates may be summarized thus:—

1. Select a limited number of the most important dates.
2. Learn them thoroughly.

3. Devise some means for using or recalling them occasionally.

4. Endeavor to appreciate the interest and significance of each date studied.

The teacher may do well to select twenty or thirty or forty of the most important dates in American history for his class, and have each pupil copy the list in his notebook. He may do better still by having each pupil take part in making the selection. Let us suppose that you are near the end of your textbook. You have pointed out, from time to time, certain dates with emphasis. You say:—

“ We shall now select the most important dates mentioned in our textbook, and make a list of them for our notebooks and our memories. During the next three days each one of you will make an independent selection of twenty dates, and arrange them in chronological order, writing after each date, in concise form, the event or events distinguishing it. The fourth day you will bring your lists to class. We shall then compare the different dates, discuss them, and select the twenty that meet with general approval. This approved list will be written upon the blackboard to give all of you an opportunity to copy it.”

In learning dates the principle of association may be utilized to excellent advantage in many instances. It is indeed remarkable how many coincidences there are in dates which make association easy and

helpful. For example, let us see how many important events are associated in the year 1619, in the Virginia colony.

1619, in the Virginia colony :—

- First elected legislature
- First shipload of wives
- First shipload of slaves
- First shipload of tobacco exported
- First university planned for America

The year 1689 affords another striking illustration.

1689, a notable year :—

- Bill of Rights agreed upon in England
- Andros overthrown in New England
- Frontenac sent to Canada as governor
- French and English begin the fight for America

April 19 is a fateful day in several centuries.

April 19, an eventful day in American history :—

- 1619 : Sir George Yeardley arrives at Jamestown
- 1689 : Boston overthrows Andros
- 1775 : First battle of the Revolution, at Lexington
- 1861 : First bloodshed of the Civil War, at Baltimore

Fate has certainly been kind to the feeble memory. Here is another example, chosen from many.

1807, a memorable year :—

Fulton's steamboat proved
 The Embargo passed
 Act of Congress forbidding importation of
 slaves passed
 Burr tried for treason
 Robert E. Lee born

Different years that are marked by notable events may often be linked together by striking similarities. They often fall at intervals of ten, twenty, or fifty years, or an even century. Note the following examples :—

1603, Queen Elizabeth dies and James I succeeds her
 1613, The Dutch begin trading at New Amsterdam
 1623, New Hampshire settled at Dover and Ports-
 mouth
 1633, Connecticut settled at Windsor
 1643, The New England Confederation formed
 1653, Cromwell turns out the Rump Parliament
 1663, Charles II makes the Carolina grant
 1673, The Dutch take back New Amsterdam for a year
 1683, Penn lays out Philadelphia
 1693, William and Mary College founded in Virginia
 Rice culture introduced into the Carolinas
 1703, Delaware becomes a separate colony

- 1713, Treaty of Utrecht ends Queen Anne's War
1723, Sir Joshua Reynolds and Adam Smith born
1733, Oglethorpe settles Georgia at Savannah
1743, Thomas Jefferson born
 First Bible printed in America, by Christopher
 Sower
1753, Washington sent to the French governor
1763, Treaty of Paris, closing the French and Indian
 War
1773, The Boston Tea Party
1783, Peace of Paris, closing the Revolutionary War
1793, Whitney invents the cotton gin
1803, Jefferson purchases Louisiana
1813, Perry's victory on Lake Erie
1823, The Monroe Doctrine proclaimed
1833, The Compromise Tariff
 Chicago founded
1843, Whitman returns to Oregon
1853, The Gadsden Purchase
1863, The battle of Gettysburg
1873, Financial panic
1883, Electric lights widely introduced
 Brooklyn Bridge opened to traffic
 Civil Service Reform Commission provided for
 Letter postage reduced to two cents
1893, Chicago World's Fair
 Financial panic
 Colorado grants full suffrage to women
 Civil Service Reform extended

- 1903, President Roosevelt sends wireless telegram to
King Edward VII
1913, Gettysburg reunion

Does not a list like this justify the claim that dates are interesting and easy to learn? Two more illustrations of the wonderful way important dates have been chained together by coincidence and parallelism are submitted :—

- 1675–6, King Philip's War in New England
Bacon's Rebellion in Virginia
1775–6, General rebellion in the colonies
1755–1763, Period of the French and Indian War
1775–1783, Period of the Revolutionary War

CHAPTER XXII

THE VALUE OF NATIONAL AND STATE SONGS

ONE summer morning a few years ago, soon after the doors of the National Museum at Washington were opened, the attendants in charge and the few early visitors present were suddenly attracted, perhaps somewhat startled, by a burst of song that came from behind one of the tall cabinets. It was a patriotic song, full of devotion and the spirit of youth. If any one had looked upon the singing as unconventional and disturbing, he hardly would have dared to say so. To have stopped the song by violence would have been like tearing down the national colors. A group of history students, with their teacher, had come on an excursion to the national capital. An evening or two before they had listened to the United States Marine Band concert on the White House lawn, and had stood up with the vast throng when the national anthem was played. The next day they had stood under the great flagstaff at Arlington, and had seen the house of Francis Scott Key in Georgetown. At this very time they were bound for Mt. Vernon, and were utilizing the hour till the steamer should start by a pause at the Museum. In

the history class at home they had just recently reviewed the British advance upon Washington and Baltimore in 1814, and the conditions under which Key had written the stirring lines that have made his name immortal. As part of the class exercise in that study the anthem itself had been learned and sung. Can any one be surprised, then, that this band of students, full of patriotic spirit, and heavy-laden with old stories made new, should have rushed eagerly up into a close group before that huge cabinet in the National Museum, and burst out singing "The Star-Spangled Banner," when they saw there before them the identical old banner that floated over Fort McHenry in 1814 and inspired the writing of the song?

There it was, a great *Old Glory*, a huge flag, thirty-two feet long and twenty-seven feet wide — big enough to cover Baltimore in a storm of fire, and big enough to wave every day over a free and happy land. The "broad stripes" on it are a foot wide, and the stars that once were bright have lost nothing of their real splendor, though their fair faces show less clearly on the faded blue field than they did when both were new. It would have been a loss of honor not to sing; it would have been treason to have stopped the song; it is a rich moment missed or lost whenever any teacher tells the story of "The Star-Spangled Banner" without having the class sing it.

Every teacher who has tested the matter knows

what power music, especially singing, has in school. It tells for morality and discipline, as well as for culture in the graces. The teacher of music is a universal benefactor; and the teacher of literature and the teacher of history may add vitality, culture, pleasure, and a wholesome patriotism to many a lesson by giving it the voice of melody—the voice of song.

In 1814 Key's writing of a song was doubtless looked upon by the few who knew of it as a minor incident of the capture of Washington and the repulse at Baltimore; but time has given the song a larger place in the history and life of our nation than can be claimed for either of the other events. A national song embodies more national sentiment, and perhaps more history, than any other set of words of equal number. A worthy song that has once become national has in that process made untold history; and it will go on down the ages elevating citizenship, shaping character among the people, and directing national policy.

The charge brought against us by some of our foreign cousins, in saying that the most conspicuous thing about the national anthems of America is that the people of America do not know them, is, or has been, too true. Let it be true no longer. At least, let the teachers and the pupils in our schools know the songs of our country. Such songs as "America," "The Star-Spangled Banner," and "The Flag of the Free" ought to be a part of every course in American

history in every American school. Every good citizen ought to know these songs, words and music, and be able to join in singing them at home or abroad. "Dixie," expressing a Southern sentiment that has become national,¹ and "America the Beautiful," expressing a Northern sentiment that will become national, are both worthy of long life and many friends. The best setting of the latter in music has been made by Will C. Macfarlane; and in this setting the song may be found in the *Ladies' Home Journal* of February, 1914.

In the same periodical, issue of September, 1911, appeared another song that has a fine spirit in beautiful words, both being enhanced by the excellent melody and harmony to which they are wedded. The words are by Henry van Dyke, the music by C. Austin Miles. The song is entitled "Where the Flag is Full of Stars." It should be sung all over the United States.

Strange as it may seem, the Russian Hymn, translation by H. F. Chorley and music by Alexis Lwoff, is one of the finest anthems for the United States or any other country. It is one of the great world hymns that may become national in any land. In both words and music it is a classic. It is a prayer to Jehovah that may be uttered with sincerity by

¹ The finest words to "Dixie" are those by M. B. Wharton, used in "Echoes from Dixie"; publisher, Mrs. Griff Edwards, Portsmouth, Va.

any people. It is a prayer for pity, for mercy, for righteousness, for truth, for freedom, for peace—national and international.

Apropos of the widespread peace sentiment and the great organized movements for international peace upon the basis of sincerity and justice, reference should be made to a song recently published by two gentlemen of New York City, George Graff, Jr., author, and E. R. Ball, composer, entitled "Let Us Have Peace." This beautiful song is dedicated by permission to Hon. William H. Taft and to the cause of peace the world over. It was selected by Imre Kiralfy, director-general of the Anglo-American exposition, to be used at the opening celebrations commemorating the hundred years of peace between Great Britain and the United States.

Included in the study of State history should be a due measure of attention to State songs. Many particular States, perhaps most of them, have their own songs; and every State in the Union should have its proper song, or songs, sooner or later. Some already in use that I happen to know about are the following: "My Old Kentucky Home," "Maryland, My Maryland," "Old Virginia," "The West Virginia Hills," "The Hills of Tennessee,"¹ "Illinois,"² "The

¹ E. T. Hildebrand, Basic City, Va., is the composer and the owner of the copyright.

² "Illinois" may be found in a booklet entitled "The One Hundred and One Best Songs," issued by the Cable Co., Chicago.

Red Old Hills of Georgia," and "The Old North State."

A number of publishing houses in various parts of the country have upon the market books or other collections of State and national songs. Among the standard collections are *Songs of the Nation* (Silver, Burdett & Co., Boston), the *School Song Book* (C. C. Birchard & Co., Boston), and *Songs for School and Flag* (Macmillan). Among other firms that publish excellent collections of patriotic songs are the Orville Brewer Publishing Company, Chicago; the Hall-Mack Company, Philadelphia; Hinds, Noble & Eldredge, New York; Hall & McCreary, Chicago; and the A. S. Barnes Company, New York.

The Children's Library, published by Doubleday, Page & Co., New York, contains a volume entitled *Songs*, edited by Dolores M. Bacon, in which the teacher of history and the teacher of literature may find many helpful pieces, words and music. The best cheap collection of patriotic songs, especially State songs, on the market is a booklet entitled *Songs of the People*, published by the Ruebush-Kieffer Company, Dayton, Va.

The best way to study and use State and national songs is, of course, to learn the words and music and sing them; but much variety and pleasure may be added by the use in school of a victrola or a grafonola. These machines are wonderfully perfect in their reproduction of all forms of music, and they are ad-

justed in price to the means of almost any school. They offer fine possibilities to every teacher of history and literature, as well as to the teacher of music. They make it possible for the children of every nation to hear and know the songs of all nations.

CHAPTER XXIII

SOURCE BOOKS AND SOURCE MATERIALS

THE ordinary child in reading the ordinary book gets no idea at all as to where or how or from whom the author got the facts stated or the pictures used to illustrate the statements. He may never inquire about these things; nevertheless, the teacher sooner or later should cause him to inquire; and it will certainly increase his interest in the subject presented and promote his general intelligence to know something of the sources of information. The experience is akin to that which he had one day when he followed the brook, the familiar brook along which he had spent many happy days, across the meadows, through the foothills, into the mountain gap, and on up into the great "kettle" in the peak, where the springs gush up clear and cold. The brook had a new meaning to him from that day. He had found the source.

By sources of history we usually mean records of some reliable sort contemporary with the events recorded. Such records are most frequently documents, writings, produced at the time and place, or near the time and place, associated with the

events. For example, we have a letter written by Columbus to an official of the Spanish court, telling about his first voyage to America — written, perhaps, during the latter part of the voyage. This letter is an interesting and valuable source of information concerning that memorable voyage. Again, during the sessions of the Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia in 1787 James Madison, a member of the Convention, kept a journal of the proceedings. We have the journal or copies of it, and it is a most valuable source concerning the framing of the Federal Constitution. The Declaration of Independence is a stirring contemporary statement of the causes of the Revolution. Washington's Farewell Address is a source, and an authoritative source, as to Washington's principles of statesmanship. Why should we spend all our time reading what the third or fourth or the fiftieth man says about Washington's political views when we can read what he himself said? Why not go to the source?

In source books arranged for use in schools the documents have been reproduced, usually being printed verbatim from the original written form. Sometimes they are reproduced almost exactly, by photography. Occasionally they are given in the most accurate translations possible, from the originals which are in a foreign language. In every case these reproductions are arranged in some kind of order,

topical or chronological generally, and frequently according to both topics and time. Each document is usually preceded by an introductory note, which gives the historical setting. At other places other notes may appear, giving the meaning of obsolete words, explaining obscure statements and references, etc.

Here is presented a brief list of source books for American history, most of which may be obtained without much difficulty.

CALDWELL: *American History Studies: Selections from Sources*; H. W. Caldwell, Lincoln, Neb., 1897.

CALDWELL: *A Source History of the United States*; with Persinger; Ainsworth & Co., Chicago.

HART: *Source-Book of American History*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

HART: *Source Readers in American History*:

No. 1, *Colonial Children*;

No. 2, *Camps and Firesides of the Revolution*;

No. 3, *How Our Grandfathers Lived*;

No. 4, *The Romance of the Civil War*;

The Macmillan Co., New York.

HART: *American History Leaflets*; with Channing; New York, 1892-1896.

HUMPHREY: *American Colonial Tracts*; G. P. Humphrey, Rochester, N.Y.

KENT: *Library of Southern Literature*; 15 volumes; with various editors; The Martin & Hoyt Co., Atlanta, Ga.

—: *Liberty Bell Leaflets*; Philadelphia, 1899—.

MCCONNELL: *Selections from Southern Orators*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

MACDONALD: *Documentary Source Book of American History, 1606-1898*; The Macmillan Co., New York.

MACDONALD: *Select Documents, 1776-1861*; New York, 1898.

MEAD: *Old South Leaflets*; E. D. Mead, Boston, 1883—.

RICHARDSON: *Messages and Papers of the Presidents*; 10 volumes; Bureau of National Literature and Art, 1903.

STEDMAN: *Library of American Literature*; 11 volumes; with Hutchinson; New York, 1888-1890.

THORPE: *Federal and State Constitutions, Colonial Charters, etc.*; 8 volumes; Government Printing Office, Washington, 1909.

WOODBURN: *American Orations*; New York, 1898.

Not only documents, but also inscriptions on monuments, coins, weapons, pictures, and like things, supply sources of information to the history student. All over this great country of ours — all over the world — are history sources in old buildings, ruins, costumes, implements, and furniture. The old State House in Boston, with Faneuil Hall, Old South Church, and the Old North Church; Trinity Church and churchyard in New York City, with Wall Street, and Battery Park; Independence Hall in Philadelphia, with Carpenters' Hall, the Betsy Ross House, and Penn's Cottage; the national museums and art galleries of Washington; old St. John's Church and other buildings in Richmond; ancient landmarks of the Spanish days at St. Augustine and many other places in the South: all these and many more serve to bring the past down into the present with a meaningful reality. Every city and nearly every town has numerous sources of history in this, that, or the other form.

In addition to the source books, and so on, listed above there are many other publications easily accessible to the student and teacher of history which contain source materials of great variety, interest, and value. The historical magazines published in nearly every section of the country frequently contain rare materials not generally available. The *Congressional Globe*, the *Congressional Record*, and the collected Acts of state legislatures are rich mines of treasure for the antiquarian, as are also county records, published and unpublished, with the annual journals and reports of educational, religious, and scientific organizations.

Files of old newspapers, magazines, and almanacs are often some of the most interesting and satisfactory sources of history. Numerous diaries and journals, published and unpublished, are to be found nearly everywhere. Time will add to their interest and value. *A Confederate Girl's Diary*, just given to the public (1913) by the Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, is a notable example. Books of travel, often written by foreign scholars, give us glimpses of ourselves through the eyes of others. Burnaby's *Travels Through North America* (A. Wessels Co., New York, 1904) is an excellent example of this class of source books.

Some of the values to be realized from the use of source books and source materials in schools may be indicated briefly in tabular form:—

1. They illuminate the textbook and quicken the historical imagination.

2. They make the picture more vivid and vital, producing a sense of reality not felt in long-distance accounts.

3. They give the pupil definite notions ; they make things plain.

4. They emphasize the personal element in history ; they give one an intimate personal acquaintance with great men and women of the past. They make the bonds of personal sympathy more keen and intelligent.

5. They have a decided value in economy. Owing to their directness, definiteness, and comprehensiveness, they give more complete information in a few pages than might be acquired apart from them in many pages of description. For example, in teaching civil government, more definite information may be obtained from the Federal Constitution concerning the national government, or from a state constitution concerning the corresponding state government, than from three or four times as much other matter in the average textbook.

6. Sources stimulate interest.

7. After studying the sources the student is conscious of a new sense of certainty. He feels that he is justified in drawing conclusions for himself.

Not many of the sources listed above, except the four volumes of source readers, could be used in the grades. More liberal use of sources may be made in the high school, the normal school, and the college.

CHAPTER XXIV

ON VOYAGES OF DISCOVERY

IN reaching America Columbus had the joy of triumph, in that he believed he had accomplished what he had set out to do; and, as Joaquin Miller says, he gave the world its grandest lesson: "Sail on!" Yet Columbus missed a keener joy — the thrill of knowing that he had found a new world — or, more exactly, a world that was lost. The joy of achievement has ever reached its rarest heights in the heart-leap of discovery. We must respect the emotion of Balboa when he first beheld the Pacific, and of Copernicus when he found the true center of the physical universe; for it is right that the desire to add something to the common store should stir the soul, and that it should leap with joy when it finds a new treasure for the sons of men.

Fortunately, too, the joy of discovery is not reserved for those alone who find new continents or new oceans or new centers of the world. The child may have this joy by finding a shining pebble in the brook, or by discovering that he can whistle or swim. Perhaps the keenest joys come in the discovery of unsuspected powers for good achievement within our-

selves. The best discovery is often made in finding oneself. Moreover, a little triumph of discovery in the world without often leads to greater awakenings in the world within. Dr. M. G. Brumbaugh tells of a backward boy who for a year was dull and listless. Finally, one rainy afternoon in early summer, going out with his classmates upon a botany excursion, he unexpectedly found a rare white orchid. The beauty of that white flower and the thrill of joy attending the finding of it awoke that boy's long-sleeping spirit, and marked the beginning of a life of splendid achievement.

Occasionally in a history class some child seems to take little or no interest in what others have done. This may be the time to set him doing something. If he is not stirred by the discoveries others have made, perhaps he will be aroused to interest and continued effort if he is led to make a discovery for himself. But what can he do? What can a child discover in history?

The chances are, of course, that any discovery he may make will have but little value for others; but if it have even the least value for him, it will be well worth while.

One of the most interesting exercises I have ever found for my classes may be called *The Voyage of Discovery*. I say to the class:—

“During the next month I want each one of you to go out and find something new. It may be anything of

historical interest, but I prefer that you find something in your own community. Look about in your neighborhood—in your own home. Ask your father or your grandfather, or any one else that you think may know something of historical interest, to tell you about some persons or events of the past. Try to find something that is not widely known. If possible, find something that has never been written out or printed. Take pains to get the exact and complete facts; write them out accurately in good form; and at the end of the month bring in your discoveries. We shall have a red-letter day for opening and reading these stories.”

Always there are members of the class who at first despair of finding anything; but in a little while every one sets out upon his voyage in earnest. A few perhaps need to be aided further by judicious suggestions; but, so far as I now recall, no one has ever failed to discover something; and all enjoy the search and the results therefrom. Some of these discoveries have been well worth preserving.

Even children in the grades can make discoveries of this sort. So far as values in enlarged interest are concerned, they may perhaps be realized in the grades better than anywhere else. The natural enthusiasm of childhood lends itself finely to the processes of seeking and finding.

Some of the sources to which students may go on these voyages of discovery are indicated below. For the child, the teacher must in some measure

point the way. Advanced students should be able to perceive fields of possibilities for themselves, but even for them a few guideposts may be useful. Accordingly, the list of sources herewith presented is intended to be helpful, at least in suggestion, to students in high schools, normal schools, and colleges, as well as to pupils in the grades.

A LIST OF SOURCES

SOME FIELDS FOR DISCOVERY

1. County records. — In every county-seat, particularly in the older counties, are to be found veritable treasures for the student of history. The records of deeds, wills, and land surveys often contain materials of real and unsuspected interest. Lists of property, real and personal, made out for purposes of taxation, or recorded in deeds of trust and other mortgages, are often illuminating with reference to social and economic conditions. The minute books of the courts of long ago are nearly always rich in a variety of valuable historical materials. Only advanced students, however, are able to use such records to much advantage.

2. Records belonging to old churches, educational institutions, and patriotic societies. — These may be found in the form of registers of marriages and baptisms, records of business meetings, minutes of faculties and committees, catalogues and bulletins,

constitutions and by-laws, programs, and lists of names.

3. Old daybooks, ledgers, and other business records. — One of the most interesting sources I have ever seen is an old daybook that was used by a country merchant during the beginnings of the Revolutionary War. On one of the fly-leaves, for example, is a list of supplies contributed for the relief of the far-away "Bostonians," whose port at that time was blockaded under the famous Boston Port Bill.

4. Old buildings and ruins. — Many old dwelling houses have quaint inscriptions here or there, or they are invested with an interesting history that is known to only a few persons.

5. Unmarked places of historic interest. — In every neighborhood there are places with which are associated striking incidents of more or less significance. The exact location of many of these places is known to only a few individuals who will soon pass away. It is a real service to the community and to posterity when the story of such a place is discovered by one who will take the pains to write it down. Aged persons with good memories should be sought out and consulted by the student and teacher of local history.

6. Old letters, diaries, and other personal records of a generation or two past. — Old letters, especially, are often rich sources for facts and incidents that have much more than a local interest. For example, I have before me a letter that was written from the

California gold fields shortly after the rush to the Golden Gate. It contains first-hand information about social and economic conditions that are full of interest and value to the student of history and sociology. Old trunks, bureaus, chests, and writing desks frequently contain real treasures that may be found with little effort.¹

¹ In connection with the subject of this chapter an article entitled "An Experiment in Teaching Local History," by Elizabeth B. White, in the *History Teacher's Magazine*, September, 1913, will be found of particular interest.

CHAPTER XXV

MNEMONIC DEVICES

THE notion that history is merely a "memory subject" and that one cannot study history profitably without memorizing a great many dates, with page after page of statements, word for word, is, of course, erroneous; but we may as well admit the fact that memory is a necessary power in the study and use of history as well as in everything else in the curriculum. Imagination and thought are possible only when memory supplies ready materials and serves as a basis of operation. Likewise, the definite matter of history can have a positive, everyday value in thought, in speech, in action only when the memory holds it faithfully before us. The student in school needs no argument to convince him that a good many things in history must be remembered. The teacher of history should profit by his pupil's conviction. Any teacher who is under the necessity of consulting the chronicle for every date, the index for every name, and the encyclopedia for every fact in every half hour that he stands before his class must be greatly handicapped, not to say embarrassed.

There are some persons of "blessed memory."

That is to say, they can remember names, places, facts, and dates almost without an effort. But such persons are few. The majority of us must make a special effort to fix an impression, and then more special effort to deepen it and command it. There is no magic trick for remembering history any more than there is such a trick for remembering the rules of grammar or the formulæ of chemistry. However, remembering history ought to be much easier than the remembering of either of the other subjects named. History is such an interesting, connected, logical order that it lends itself naturally to the processes of memory. Just as it is easier to remember a story or a poem than it is to remember a lot of disconnected sentences or numbers, so it is easier to retain a mental grip on history than on any subject in which human interest is lacking or the reason searches vainly for whys and wherefores. Because of its multiplicity of incident and the logic of its constructive principles history clutches the memory circumstantial and beckons the memory philosophical. It would perhaps be more strictly true to say that the memory clutches history. There is a magic here, but it is the magic that makes every memory wonderful. No new power is needed; we only need to know the powers we have, and how to use them.

Accordingly, the relations of resemblance, contrast, contiguity in time and place, cause and effect, all combine in aiding the memory in history; and these

ordinary forces are generally adequate for all ordinary purposes and persons. Nevertheless, once in a while some special device may be used to advantage. Every device suggested herein is simple and natural, and is presented as an illustration of what the student may find for himself rather than as something made and given by another. No artificial system of mnemonics is outlined or even recommended. Most such systems are worse burdens in themselves than are the friendly facts they are supposed to carry.

One of the best ways to aid memory is to write down carefully and plainly the thing to be remembered. If some unique or striking form is employed, the mnemonic value is increased. The following outlines may serve to illustrate this suggestion.

FOUR EVENTFUL APRILS

- 1775 — April 19, Battle of Lexington
- 1861 — April 14, Fort Sumter evacuated
 15, Volunteers called for by Lincoln
 19, First bloodshed (in Baltimore)
 20, Norfolk navy yard captured
- 1862 — April 6, 7, Battle of Shiloh
 7, Island No. 10 captured
 11, Fort Pulaski captured
 25, New Orleans captured
- 1865 — April 1, Battle of Five Forks
 2, Fall of Petersburg
 3, Fall of Richmond

- 1865 — April 9, Lee's surrender
 14, Lincoln assassinated
 26, Johnston's surrender

FOUR STEPS OF STRUGGLE IN AMERICAN HISTORY

- I. The Struggle for Life — 1492-1789
 II. The Struggle of Factions — 1789-1820
 III. The Struggle of Sections — 1820-1877
 IV. The Struggle of Classes — 1877-

Frequently the tenacity of a form may be increased by putting into it a forced alliteration or other repeat of sound, as in the following examples:—

A

- I. Construction — 1776-1789
 II. Destruction — 1860-1865
 III. Reconstruction — 1865-1877

B

- I. The Finding of the New World, 1000-1565
 II. The Founding of the Colonies, 1565-1733
 III. The Fledging of the Colonies, 1733-1765
 IV. The Freeing of the Colonies, 1765-1783
 V. The Framing of the Nation, 1783-1789
 VI. The Forming of Political Parties, 1789-1820
 VII. The Debate over Slavery, 1820-1850
 VIII. War Clouds Brewing, 1850-1860
 IX. War Clouds Bursting, 1860-1865

X. War Clouds Breaking,	1865–1877
XI. The Clearer Sky,	1877–

Sometimes a date written altogether in figures presents a striking form, as, for example, the date of the signing of the Great Charter, June 15, 1215; otherwise, 6, 15, 12, 15. The date of Burgoyne's surrender is a notable combination of eight and seven: Oct. 17, 1777; otherwise, Oct. 17, 17, 77; or, 10, 17, 17, 77.

See how easy it is to remember the victories of Perry and Macdonough on the Lakes, in the War of 1812, when the dates are written together thus:—

Perry, on Lake Erie, Sept. 10, 1813; or 9, 10, 1813.
 Macdonough on Lake Sept. 11, 1814; or 9, 11, 1814.
 Champlain,

It happens that there are some very striking resemblances between the 7th President of the United States and the 17th President, some of which may be suggested by the remarkable similarities in their names, etc.:—

7th President, Andrew Jackson.

17th President, Andrew Johnson.

The initial history of the Monroe Doctrine necessitates some reference to the Holy Alliance. The curious word formed by the several letters beginning the two parts of the name, and the names of the

countries that composed the Holy Alliance, will stick to the memory like a scene of childhood :—

Holy Alliance : Russia, Austria, Prussia
H A R A P

Whatever *Harap* may be or mean, it helps me to remember the Holy Alliance and the countries that made it up. The character and purpose of the Alliance may be set forth upon the same curious word — if it be a word :—

H — Holy	H — Holy
A — Alliance	A — Alliance
R — Religion	R — Reactionary
A — And	A — Absolutism
P — Peace Pretended ; but the	P — Promoted

The medieval trivium and quadrivium may be remembered easily by a similar device :—

TRIVIUM

Grammar, Rhetoric, Logic ;
G R L

QUADRIVIUM

Music, Arithmetic, Geometry, Astronomy
M A G A

The *Grl Maga* is a little maid who will come at your call, and who will prove a friend in need.

A number of devices for remembering the names of the Presidents in order have been published. The following one, brought to my attention by one of my pupils, is about the best I have seen :—

“Washington And Jefferson Made Many A Joke. Van Buren Had Trouble Plenty To Find Proper Banknotes. Let Johnson Go Home Grinning At Congress Heartily. Cleveland Made Roosevelt Tarry Wilfully.”

In this mnemonic the names of some of the Presidents appear in their places, and the initials of the others are given in their proper order in the initial letters of the respective words.

One other example must suffice. This was given me several years ago by Dr. S. Rolfe Millar, who said that it was seen one day, written upon a sheet of paper, hanging on the wall of Richard T. Ely's room, while the latter was a student at the University of Heidelberg. It is a key to the names of the royal families of Great Britain, beginning with the Normans and coming down to the present :—

“No plan like yours to study history or biography.

No —	Norman
Plan —	Plantagenet
Like —	Lancaster
Yours —	York
To —	Tudor
Study —	Stuart
History or Biography —	Hanover or Brunswick”

This is not only a clever device to aid the memory, but it also suggests a vital truth to the student and teacher. There is no plan like yours — no plan so good as yours, if yours is a good plan — for studying or teaching. There is probably no device that will aid your memory so much as one that you discover or invent for yourself. As a student, you should develop some plans and methods of your own, and these should be ever ready and useful, even if you forget what others have suggested. As a teacher, you should be observant, inventive, and courageous, ready to try and test what your reason, your experience, or your aims may suggest, or your needs may demand. The good teacher's best plans are his own plans; and no one is a good teacher without having some plans of his own.

CHAPTER XXVI

DEVICES FOR REVIEW AND RECREATION

IN this chapter it is my purpose to indicate in brief, tabular form some particular things that may be done in history classes for the sake of both knowledge and pleasure. These things are indicated here in a separate division because they may be properly regarded as somewhat out of the ordinary, and hence to be used only occasionally. It should be understood, however, that they are all things that are practicable and easy to carry out. Every one of them has been tested and approved by actual class room experiment.

1. **Biographical review.** — This may come in very appropriately at the end of a quarter or a session, at the end of a book, or at the end of a course. It may also be used at the beginning of a session for the purpose of recalling leading characters and events, and thus getting a fresh grip upon past work as a good start for new progress. The process is logical and simple. The teacher makes out a list of prominent names in the field of history last covered, arranging them chronologically. They are assigned, in order, to particular members of the class for

special study. On each character the proper student prepares a two-minute report in which an effort is made to point out the special significance of the man's work, as well as to state leading biographical facts.

At the meeting of the class the teacher calls for the reports in order, each pupil rising in his place and responding promptly. In a half hour a dozen such reports may be made, and as many assignments given out for the next day. Three or four days may be required to complete the series.

2. Who's Who in America?— A profitable exercise that logically follows the one outlined above is the identification of the personages concerning whom reports have been recently given in class. Divide the class into two groups, or sides, as for the old-time spelling match. Let the teacher call out the name of a particular historical character, and let the proper student, on the proper side, give a satisfactory identification. If he fail in this, let the name be passed to the proper student on the opposite side. Let each failure put the "failer" down and out, for the time.

If it is known that such a contest as this may follow the biographical reports, better attention may thereby be secured to those reports; and the exercise of identification will not only test the memory, but will also give training in the selection of significant facts regarding each person identified. The teacher

should insist upon accurate and satisfactory statements in every instance.

3. Proper names properly spelled. — One of the very best exercises for review or recreation in a history class is a regular spelling match over the proper names of history: names of persons, places, events, occasions, achievements, and so on, that are spelled with capital letters. The captains should be elected in advance, and they should have the class divided before the period of the contest comes. If they will hand the teacher the names of one side, he can call those names in less than a minute; then all whose names are not called will compose the opposite side. By such a plan only a minute or two will be required for preliminaries, and practically the whole period will be available for spelling. Easy names should be given for the first round or two; then harder ones may be used.

4. A battle over the generals. — Many persons get the generals named in American history much confused. Frequently one is not able to tell whether Schimmelfennig, for example, fought in the Revolution or in some other war; and if by chance he should guess the proper war, he could not tell, to save his life, whether the said general wore blue or gray, red or buff. Accordingly, real instruction and real pleasure may be combined in a contest between two classes, or two parts of the same class, in which the contestants shall be called upon first to say whether

such and such a general figured in this or that or the other war; and, second, to tell upon which side he stood. I think it is well to go around the class first, or over the list first, having the officers properly classified as to wars; then take a second round, requiring each contestant to tell both things: (1) The name of the war in which the man figured; (2) the side upon which he fought.

5. Geographical contest. — Hardly anything puzzles a history student so much as a question in historical geography. Yet, hardly anything is more necessary to a clear and complete notion, in many instances, than a definite idea of geography. A most interesting and profitable contest may be had in calling for the location of particular places that figure prominently in our national history. First, the location of the place may be called for; second, a definite statement regarding the thing that has made the place famous. Variety may be secured if the teacher will occasionally indicate the location of the place himself, and then ask the pupil to give the name of the place described.

6. Chain-method maps. — The teacher selects some small, simple map in the textbook and assigns a small, definite part of it to one pupil after another, until every part of the map has been assigned. He then assigns the same parts, in the same order, to another group of pupils, equal in number to the first group. Each pupil is expected to practice drawing

his particular part until he can draw it quickly and with fair accuracy. In a day or two the two groups are put to work, at opposite ends or sides of the room. Each "artist" puts in his part in regular order, from first to last. The group that finishes first makes the first score in the contest; the group that makes the best map gets the second score, which may be double in value to the first. All the drawing in the contest is done, of course, from memory.

7. Our first citizens. — Some day you may give an interesting exercise in this manner: Announce that upon a certain occasion in the near future a vote will be taken on this question: "What man has rendered the greatest service to the United States?" Announce also that another vote will then be taken for the second honor, on the question: "What man after . . . has rendered the greatest service to the United States?"

At the same time, or upon another day, take votes to accord first honor and second honor among the great women of our land.

Let all voting be by written ballot, with each ballot containing the name of only one person. The first ballot will serve, perhaps, only to nominate certain candidates. Subsequent ballots may be taken upon the three or five names leading in the first ballot, until one name gets a majority of the votes.

8. Election day. — In history or civil government a voting booth may be prepared, judges and clerks

of election appointed, and a form of election, with the Australian ballot, be gone through with. To make the proceedings more complete and instructive, a registrar may be appointed some time in advance, and the several members of the class may be duly registered, each one presenting qualifications that are acceptable under the state and national constitutions.

9. **Date contest.** — The principle of contest, which adds so much of interest and enthusiasm wherever it is applied, may be utilized in making up the list of dates suggested in Chapter XXI. For example, if an approved list of thirty dates in American history is to be decided upon, let each member of the class make a list of thirty dates for consideration. One after the other, different members of the class may be called upon to suggest dates, one at a time, for the approved list, no date being admitted to that list without a certain number of (say, five or ten) approving votes, the teacher retaining a veto power in each case. Probably forty or more dates, of all those suggested, will receive the requisite number of approving votes. The teacher should then eliminate ten, or the number required, to bring the approved list down to thirty. Then some small prize may be awarded to the pupil whose personal list is found to contain the largest number of dates on the approved list.

Various other contests with dates may be devised by any ingenious teacher.

10. A question list. — One of the most helpful things a teacher can do for his class is to make out for them a list of questions based upon the textbook. These questions may be numbered consecutively from the beginning, and may be few or many. This is so simple and commonplace that one hesitates to mention it at all, but it is so practicable and is always received with so much appreciation that it cannot be overlooked.

11. Question-box day. — On a certain day each member of the class may be requested to write out a question on a piece of paper of convenient size and drop it into the class question box upon coming into the room. If the class contain only ten or twelve members, each one may be allowed to drop in two or three questions. The teacher then opens the question box and conducts the quiz for the day altogether from the pupils' own questions. If two or more days at the end of a quarter should be set aside for review, one of them could very profitably be used as question-box day. This method will be found interesting and helpful at any time. Before the teacher undertakes it, however, he should be pretty certain of the ground to be covered. It is not a very easy thing for the inexperienced teacher to take up one question after another and answer it promptly and correctly — when somebody else has framed the question. It should be understood, of course, that only reasonable questions are to be

submitted. Any "smart" question, or any one that is evidently not given in good faith, should be cast aside without ceremony. To insure care in every question, it is well to have each one signed.

12. Class debate. — An occasional formal debate in class, on some question of historical or current interest, may be made both instructive and entertaining. Judges should be secured from outside the class, if possible.

13. Lantern talks. — By means of collections of post cards or lantern slides the teacher may now and then illustrate a special talk that will be illuminating to his pupils regarding this or that subject. Historic places lend themselves finely to such methods. Whatever approaches the eye-gate is likely to find ready entrance and a kind welcome.

14. Picture contest. — A pleasing variation of No. 13 may be had by showing, preferably on the lantern screen, a lot of historical pictures, numbered but not named, and allowing the class to guess the names or subjects. The series may include portraits of famous men and women, photographs of historic objects and places, reproductions of well-known paintings, a map or two, or anything of like helpful nature. Each member of the class may write his guess after the respective number, as the pictures are shown; and at the end a prize may be awarded for the best list of answers.

CHAPTER XXVII

HISTORY NOTEBOOKS

IN this chapter we shall consider first the teacher's own notebook; second, the notebook that the pupil may make under the teacher's direction. The subject may be presented at the beginning of a course of instruction, to give the student practical aid at the earliest possible moment.

The teacher's notebook should be for him a ready manual, a portfolio of materials and plans ready for use. The pupil's notebook should be for him an open laboratory, as well as a volume of record. In every case, however, especially in normal schools, the pupil's notebook should be potentially, if not designedly, a teacher's notebook. Every teacher should be able to use in some measure, as a teacher, the notebook he formerly made as a pupil.

Many of the publishing houses nowadays are able to supply notebooks prepared in advance, in outline, for the use of different history classes. Some of these are excellent, especially for beginners or inexperienced pupils; and more particular notice will be given certain ones at the end of this chapter. For the teacher, however, and for the advanced pupil,

I am of the opinion that no notebook is quite so valuable, either in the process of construction or in subsequent use, as the book made wholly by himself, for himself, and largely in his own way.

The teacher's notebook may be of any convenient size or form. However, if the pages are smaller in size than 8 by 10 inches, the space on a page will often be found inadequate for various purposes. Unruled pages will be found preferable in most cases. Maps, outlines, diagrams, and drawings are often interrupted by conventional lines. The paper of a notebook should be of good quality and of sufficient weight to bear pictures and clippings pasted on it. On the whole, the most satisfactory combination I have found, for teacher and pupil alike, is composed of the University Note Cover, No. 6, filled with both ruled and unruled detachable leaves. The advantages thus secured are obvious. This book is elastic, not only in the sense that many or few leaves may be carried at a time, but also in the sense that pasted-in clippings and pictures will not strain the binding. Since the leaves may be taken out at any time, and may be arranged in any desired order, such a notebook can be used for three or four different classes. The only necessary rule is this: "Put only one kind of notes on each leaf." The possibility of having at hand either ruled or unruled leaves is also an advantage. For ordinary line writing the ruled leaves may be used; for draw-

ings, maps, and such entries, the unruled leaves are available.

Having the notebook ready, but empty as yet, what shall be put into it, and how? The answers here must vary in accordance with the teacher's field or grade of work. Obviously, the materials selected and the manner of arrangement must be adapted to the primary grades, if the teacher is a primary teacher; and the same is true, with necessary changes, for the high school teacher, the normal school teacher, and the college teacher. But in all grades and fields, perhaps, the following things may be found desirable and appropriate.

1. Lesson plans. — Every teacher should have a plan of some sort. It may be elaborate or compendious, but it should be logical and workable. It may not be written down anywhere, except in the ready convolutions of the teacher's brain; but if it be written down on paper, the teacher's notebook is a good place for it. Young and inexperienced teachers will find the making of lesson plans almost as helpful as the actual using of them. The lesson plan, as written down, may consist of only a list of questions; but if so, the notebook is a good place for these questions, which should be preserved, at least for a while, for use in review or for the teacher's own reference.

2. Lists of names, events, and dates. — The teacher of American history should be able to name

offhand, in order, all the Presidents of the United States, and be able at the same time to give the approximate date of each administration; but until he is able to do this he ought to have the names neatly tabulated in his notebook, in a straight column, with the proper ordinal numeral preceding each name, and the exact date of the administration following. Such a list will sometimes be needed for testing the pupils in class, and will always be convenient for reference. The next step would be to enlarge this outline by writing down under each name the chief events of the administration.

In a similar manner the teacher may have ready at hand in his notebook a list of important inventions, with the date in each case and the name of the inventor; parallel lists of Federal and Confederate generals; parallel lists of Republican and Democratic leaders; a list of important political events; a list of important economic and industrial events; a list of recent events of note; a list of subjects of special current interest and significance. All these are good; but everything mentioned here is suggested rather than prescribed. The resourceful teacher will do many other things, all of which may be, perhaps, better for him.

3. A list of topics, with specific references to sources of information.—The teacher must know not only what topics merit special study, but also where definite information on these topics may be

found. Accordingly, it is well for every teacher to work out for his notebook a list of from twenty to fifty such topics as "Home Life in Colonial Days," "The Navigation Acts," "The Making of the Federal Constitution," "Protection and Free Trade," "The Westward Movement," "Immigration," putting down under each, in tabular form, a number of references to sources of information and illustration. The topics should be arranged in logical or chronological order. The references may lead to archives, to source books, to general or special treatises, to articles in current periodicals, to standard works of fiction, to historical poems, to maps, charts, and pictures. Each reference should be full and specific. A reference to a book should give not only the title of the book and the author's name, but also the appropriate chapter and pages. References to periodicals should give at least the name of the article, with the exact and full date of the particular issue containing the article, in each case. Some of the best things extant on many history topics may be found in standard magazines, and often nowhere else.

4. Classified lists of books of historical interest. — These books should be such as are suitable for the school libraries of different grades as well as for the home reading and reference of the children. The teacher will find such lists convenient not only in finding her own materials and in assigning work to the more advanced classes, but also in answering

questions from principals and parents regarding the purchase of books for school and home.

5. Quotations and summaries. — Striking statements of great historical facts are found in every standard work. A number of these may, with interest and profit, be assembled in the teacher's notebook for use in class. Each one, of course, should be exactly reproduced and properly credited. Brief summaries of extended readings are convenient, and the making of such summaries is an excellent exercise for teacher or pupil.

6. Clippings and pictures. — If a teacher does not keep a complete indexed file of periodicals, he will find it very desirable to preserve in his notebook a number of clippings that have value for his work. In most cases, perhaps, these clippings will be made from papers that are not of sufficient value, or not esteemed of sufficient value, to be preserved entire. Each piece selected should be cut out neatly, and pasted into the notebook at some place where it has relation to its surroundings. Especial care should always be taken to put under each clipping the name of the periodical from which it was taken, with the exact date of issue. Great collections of clippings are often rendered almost worthless simply because they cannot be identified with any authority or any date.

In the collection of historical pictures for his notebook the teacher is nowadays offered a wonderfully rich and varied field. The advertising pages of mag-

azines, the book catalogues of publishing houses, specimen pages of new textbooks, postage stamps that record history, picture post cards from everywhere, not to mention the pictures prepared specially for school use, are continually coming to his hand. They all have an interest and a value for his work if he will but take them, preserve them, and use them. His notebook has great possibilities as a filing cabinet and as a picture gallery.

7. Maps and drawings. — These should not be mere copies, but original and unique, as far as possible. If the teacher visit a place of historic interest, let him draw a map in his notebook for subsequent use. This map may be reproduced upon the blackboard by the teacher or a member of the class. The fact that this map is not found in any published work will give it double interest and value. In like manner drawings of historical relics — houses, implements, weapons, etc. — may be made and used with pleasure and profit.

An important principle to observe in making the notebook is this: Make it open and approachable. A succession of solidly written pages in a notebook or in anything else is neither open nor approachable. Accordingly, make frequent headings, paginal or marginal, throughout your book. Leave a blank line between paragraphs. Whenever possible put a statement, especially a series of related lines, in tabular form. Use outlines, “graphs,” and dia-

grams freely. Write in a hand compact and legible. In every case try to make the entry attractive, distinctive, and easy to find. A notebook is of little value unless it can be opened readily at the particular thing needed.

So much for the teacher's notebook. Let us now consider the notebook that the pupil may make under the teacher's direction.

In general, the things already enumerated as desirable for the teacher's notebook are also appropriate for the pupil's use. Lists of names, events, and dates, a list of topics with specific references, quotations and summaries, clippings and pictures, maps and drawings should all be worked out in due place and proportion. Normal school pupils will not, of course, neglect the lesson plan. A fine notebook in the hands of the teacher may well serve as a model for the pupil. With special reference, however, to the pupil's work, a few additional suggestions are offered.

1. Let the pupil keep a careful record of all readings outside the regular textbook. The following form is recommended:—

Topic: Columbus and his Achievements.

Readings on this topic:

1. Nida: *The Dawn of American History in Europe*; Chapter XXIII, pp. 279–296.

(Brief summary of the reading or a notable extract from it.)

(Date when the reading was done.)

2. Renouf: *Outlines of General History*; Chapter XXI, pp. 251-256.
(Brief summary or a notable quotation.)
(Date.)
3. Garner and Lodge: *History of the United States*; Vol. I, Chapter II, divisions I and II, pp. 31-64.
(Brief summary, with notable quotations.)
(Date.)

The making of such records as these will serve different helpful purposes. Thereby the pupil will get training in careful reading and in the art of selecting main facts. He will get into the scholarly habit of making exact references and giving due credits. He will build up a classified bibliography that may be of convenience and value in the future. From such records the pupil or teacher may determine at any time just what and how much parallel reading has been done. The satisfaction of having a definite record is worth something in both equipment and character.

2. The pupil should put into his notebook the work that the teacher puts on the blackboard or presents in original charts and diagrams. Exceptions to this there may be, but this may stand as a general rule. The pupil should not try to write down everything the teacher says; for, in the process, unless he be an expert stenographer, he will miss altogether many things of greater importance than those he gets.

Close and unbroken attention to a lecture, with note-taking only at intervals, is usually worth more than the futile and distracting effort to record everything. A most excellent plan is this: Listen carefully, with discrimination, to what is said; then go to your room and write down in good form an outline of what you have heard. Not the least among the values obtained from this process are those developed in attention and memory.

3. All class reports and essays that the pupil is required to prepare may well be retained as part of his notebook.

4. In observation lessons normal school students will secure much valuable material for notes. All formal reports on observation work should of course be incorporated in the proper notebook for future study. Moreover, with normal school students every lesson should be an observation lesson. Every teacher should be carefully observed; and every good method he uses or suggests should be noted. It may also be necessary occasionally to record a caution against some proceeding that is obviously bad.

5. All historical discoveries, wherever and whenever made, should be recorded. As the boy or girl is coming and going, at home, at school, abroad, during school time and in vacation, facts and objects of historical value will be found; places and things of historical interest will be seen; persons who are making history, or have made it, will be met. The

student with the true historical instinct will seize upon every opportunity thus presented, and his notebook, his teacher, and his classmates, not to speak of himself, will be the richer ever afterward.

Inasmuch as the pupil's notebook should, as far as possible, register his own work and individuality, and thus aid him to self-expression and constructive power, few hard and fast rules should be given him. It may well be required that all notebooks in the same class be of the same kind to begin with; but to require that they all follow a certain form, and be practically the same at the end, would be absurd. Such a rule would smack of Egypt or China.

Accuracy, neatness, and artistic quality are high values in notebook work, and should be emphasized throughout. The constant recognition of these values gives the pupil character and skill. They appear in his work as good form and attractiveness. Let the notebook grow into a thing of beauty; then it will be a joy forever. Then it will be made with pleasure; it will be referred to with satisfaction; it will be kept with profit for a larger future.

For the benefit of those teachers or pupils who need or desire notebooks in American history, prepared in outline, the following paragraphs are offered. Therein are briefly described some excellent manuals that the author has examined.

1. Foster's *Historical Outline Maps for Students of American History*; The Historical Publishing Co., Topeka,

Kansas. In the complete book are 40 outline maps, with specific directions accompanying each one. The series, when completed according to directions, depicts most of the great movements and events in United States history that have a geographical basis. This book may be secured in three parts, one for the 7th grade, one for the 8th grade, and one for the high school.

2. *Ivanhoe Historical Note Book Series*; Part I, *United States History*; Atkinson, Mentzer & Co., New York and Chicago. This book contains 42 outline maps, with accompanying directions. There are also suggestions for reviews, and a few blank pages for notes or an essay. In the Ivanhoe series is a special notebook to accompany the study of Texas history.

3. McKinley's *Historical Notebook for United States History*; McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia. This book contains 26 outline maps, to be filled out from the study of standard books, to which specific references are made. Alternate leaves are blank, for notes and essays.

4. White's *Pupil's Outline Studies in United States History*; American Book Co., New York and Chicago. Drawings, outlines, essays, and special development of topics are provided for in this book, as well as the filling out of maps. There are in all 128 pages.

The first three books described above are in size about 8 by 10½ inches, and open at the end; the last is about 8 by 9 inches, and opens at the side. The prices range from 20 to 30 cents. None of them ought to be used below the 7th grade, and all could be used with profit in the high school and in the normal school.

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE TEACHER'S LESSON PLAN

To work without a plan is to work without intelligence, and at the sacrifice of economy, efficiency, and directness. It would be no more wasteful and absurd for a builder to begin a house without a plan than for a teacher to begin a course or a lesson without a plan.

A plan made in advance is essential to happy results in either case. It is not necessary, however, that the plan of the builder or the teacher be laid out on paper. Obviously it first must have some shape in the maker's imagination before it can take form upon paper; and sometimes the memory must serve instead of paper. Many good structures have been erected without the drawing of a single visible line in advance. On one occasion a certain general, I think it was Stonewall Jackson, wanted a bridge built across a small stream within a very brief time. He called the master builder, a man of many years but of little learning — in books. He said, "This bridge must be done by such and such a day. My architect will furnish you with plans." The next evening the old builder was summoned again. The

general said: "Have you received the plans for that bridge?" "General," replied the other, "the bridge is done; I don't know whether the pictur' is or not."

This is not an argument against plans. The old bridge master had a plan, complete and ready, that he had wrought out many a time into visible symmetry and wondrous strength. He had a plan in memory, and he was able to transfer it into abutment and girder and brace without any intermediary forms on paper. At first he alone saw the plan; at last everybody could see the bridge.

The experienced teacher should be able to project a new plan promptly or to adapt an old plan quickly upon occasion, and to use either straight from the brain; yet an old teacher will always find the process of formal plan-making exceedingly helpful, and the young teacher should conscientiously regard it as necessary. There must be something in the brain to begin with, or there can be nothing on the paper; but it is remarkable how quickly ideas expand and reach out in proper relations when given a tentative form before the eye. Organization and elaboration go forward with encouraging facility at the point of a pen.

It is believed that the following outlines will be helpful to the young teacher in the process of plan-making. First is given a skeleton outline, of general character, that may be filled out according to need

or desire. Next are given three embodiments of the same skeleton: first, in a story for small children; second, in a series of questions for larger pupils; third, in a series of topics for the upper grades or the high school. Each of the three complete forms is intended to be typical for the grades indicated, but suggestive rather than final. Simplicity of form and clearness of statement have been chief aims. Certain troublesome terms, supposed to be technical but used by different authorities with different meanings, have been studiously avoided.

A LESSON PLAN FOR TEACHING HISTORY IN THE GRADES

A. Memoranda

1. Subject of the Course :
2. Subject for To-day :
3. Textbook ; Pages assigned :
4. Pupils' References :
5. Teacher's References :
6. Assignment for To-morrow :
7. Materials Suggested :

B. Outline of Class Work

(For To-day)

1. Introduction :
 - (1) Connection with Yesterday's Lesson ;
 - (2) Entrance upon To-day's Lesson.

2. Development :

- (1) By means of a Story ; (or)
- (2) By means of a Logical Series of Questions ; (or)
- (3) By means of a Logical Series of Topics ; (or)
- (4) By a Combination of the Foregoing.

3. Conclusion :

- (1) A Summary of the whole lesson ; (or)
- (2) Special Emphasis on Selected Points ; (or)
- (3) A Presentation of some New Fact revealed or suggested by the lesson.

FIRST EXAMPLE OF EXPANDED PLAN

FOR THE THIRD OR FOURTH GRADE

DEVELOPMENT BY MEANS OF A STORY

A. Memoranda

1. Subject of the Course : American History.
2. Subject for To-day : How the Settlers Built their Houses.
3. Textbook ; Pages assigned : No regular textbook used.
4. Pupils' Reference : *Building a Log Cabin*, in Hart's *How Our Grandfathers Lived*, pages 143-146.
5. Teacher's References :
 - (1) Danske Dandridge's *A Kentucky Pioneer*, pages 161-163 ;
 - (2) Samuel Kercheval's *A History of the Valley of Virginia*, page 151.

6. Assignment for To-morrow : Construction Work.
7. Materials Suggested : Small poles or other round sticks ; wire nails of different sizes ; stones ; mortar ; saw, hatchet, trowel, and other tools.

B. Outline of Class Work

(For To-day)

(1. INTRODUCTION)

For several days past we have been studying about the Indians. Now we shall begin to study about the white people who made settlements in this country while the Indians were still here. Yesterday we finished making a little wigwam, which gives us an idea of the Indian houses ; to-day I am going to tell you a story which will help you to understand how a white settler's first house was built.

(2. DEVELOPMENT)

How Hans and Hannah Built their House

Hans was a sturdy young German, and Hannah was his buxom young wife. In the midst of their honeymoon they left their old home in Pennsylvania to seek a new home in the Valley of Virginia. In company with many of their friends, who were also seeking new homes, they journeyed slowly southward. Such things as pots and kettles, saws and axes, corn and potatoes were hauled in wagons ; and cows and extra horses were led along on foot. Hans had two strong young horses, named Kit and Barney, hitched to his new wagon ; and he drove at the head of the long procession.

Crossing the Potomac River a few miles above Harper's Ferry, the party followed an old Indian trail up the beautiful Shenandoah Valley, past the places where Winchester, Woodstock, and New Market now stand. They continued moving up the Valley for four days. Some Indians were occasionally seen, but they were all friendly. Once in a while cabins of white settlers were passed, but they were few; for the time of which we speak was long ago. George Washington, who afterwards was a surveyor in the Valley for Lord Fairfax, was at this time just eight or ten years old; and Daniel Boone, who afterwards hunted through the Valley, was a little chap of only five or six.

On the evening of the fourth day, as the sun went down behind the high mountains in the west, Hans pulled up the lines and said "Whoa!" to Kit and Barney, and they stopped beside a big spring of water that gushed out between two huge limestone rocks.

"Here," said Hans, "we are going to build our house."

"*Ja*," exclaimed Hannah, "*sehr gut, Hans*," which Hans understood to mean "All right, Hans, I'll stand by you."

They were near the place where Harrisonburg now stands; and the other members of the party selected home sites not far away. Until the cabins could be finished each family slept in its wagon, under the big wagon cover, which resembled a tent. The weather was warm, for it was early May. The forest was beautiful in its many shades of green; the birds sang sweetly among the branches; bees hummed over the wild flowers; and squirrels leaped from tree to tree.

Early the next morning Hans and Hannah were at work. First they cleared off a good-sized space of ground near

the spring, and drove in four strong stakes at the places where they intended to set the four corners of their house. By this time it was ten o'clock, and Hannah began to cook dinner; but Hans took his ax and began to cut down some nice straight trees, which were about as large around as a two-gallon bucket. After dinner Hannah took hold of one end of the long cross-cut saw, and she and Hans sawed the felled trees into long logs. Some of these logs were 20 feet long, and were intended for the sides of the house; most of the others were 16 feet long, and were intended for the ends of the house.

Hans continued to fell trees and, with Hannah's help, to saw them up, all the afternoon, and during the next two days. By that time they had about 40 of the longer logs, and about the same number of the shorter ones. The fourth day Hans took Kit and Barney and dragged the logs to the place that was already staked off for the house. He arranged the logs in four piles: the longer ones in two piles, on opposite sides of the house site; the shorter ones in two piles, at opposite ends of the house site. I'll show you the arrangement here on the black-board.

By this time the other members of the party were also ready to build their houses; but it was agreed among them that Hans and Hannah should have their house put up first. Accordingly, on an appointed day all the men came early in the morning to help Hans build the house; and some of the women also came to help Hannah cook a big dinner.

Four men, who were very skillful with axes, took their sharp axes in their hands and stood at the places where Hans and Hannah had driven the four stakes. These

stakes, you remember, showed just where the four corners of the house were to be. These four men were called "corner-men." It was their business to notch the ends of the logs and fit them together at the corners of the house, and to keep the corners straight as the house went up.

It was the business of the other men, most of them, to bring the logs and hand them up to the corner-men. When the house got up above a man's shoulders, the logs were rolled up on long, strong poles, laid slanting up from the ground. These poles were called skids.

A few of the men were put to making puncheons and clapboards. We shall see after a little what puncheons and clapboards were.

I have been trying to find out the names of the four corner-men, whose sharp axes made the white chips fly whenever a log was handed or pushed up to them. Although I cannot be certain in this case, I think their names may have been George Bowman, Peter Showalter, Daniel Heatwole, and John Burkholder. These have been familiar names about Harrisonburg for many years.

Some cabins in those early days had only the ground for a floor; but Hans and Hannah decided to have a wood floor in theirs. Accordingly, when the first round of logs next the ground was securely in place, notches were cut into the two side logs at regular distances, and into these notches were fitted the ends of strong cross-timbers. These cross-timbers were called "sleepers." They lay near the ground and held up the floor. The floor consisted of puncheons, laid close together across the sleepers.

Now, the puncheons were heavy, rough boards, or slabs, split out of logs. They were smoothed somewhat with axes, but they were at best very rough and uneven. You

can well imagine how many splinters Hans might have got into his feet by walking over such a floor barefooted. Puncheons made a strong floor, but one that was very full of ups and downs. All the stools and chairs had to be made with three legs only ; because nothing with four legs, unless it was a cat or a dog, could stand steady. When the puncheons dried out and shrunk up, the cracks between them were wide enough for a rat to go through.

A door was made in the side of the house by sawing out short pieces of the logs, one above the other. At each side of the doorway a flat piece of timber was set up and fastened to the ends of the logs with strong wooden pins, driven in after holes were bored with an auger. These upright pieces not only made a frame or facing for the door, but also held the sawed-off logs in their places. A similar opening, not quite so high, but about twice as wide, was made at one end of the cabin. This was for the fireplace and chimney. At another place a block was sawed out of a single log. The small opening thus made was afterwards covered with a piece of paper well greased with lard. What do you suppose this was? It was the window. Glass could not be had, and the greased paper, which let in a little light, was used instead.

When the walls of the house were about ten feet high, the end logs were made shorter each round. This drew the side logs in toward the center. At the same time, each pair of side logs was higher than the preceding pair. At last a single log rested along the center, from end to end, higher than all the others. This was called the ridge pole.

The house was now ready for the roof, and the men who had been making clapboards had a large pile of them

ready. Clapboards are big shingles. They are split out of straight logs, just like shingles or barrel staves, but are not shaved smooth, with a drawing knife, as shingles and staves are. The clapboards were laid on the roof, one layer after another. They did not fit together very well, neither did they lie flat and even everywhere; but they were fastened down with heavy poles laid on top of them, and they had to lie still. A clapboard roof was the fashionable thing in early pioneer days. It was not smooth or pretty, but it kept out all of the rain and most of the snow.

While the men were splitting out the clapboards they cast aside a great many small pieces of timber. These were now cut into proper sizes and driven into the cracks between the logs of the house. The cracks were then filled up with mud. This kept out the wind and cold until the house got old and dry; then the cold wind would often whistle in through a hundred cracks at once; and sometimes, of a winter's night, when Hans and Hannah were asleep, the little flakes of snow would sift in and make white figures all over the rough puncheon floor.

The chimney to the house was also built of wood. It was lined around the fireplace with flat stones, and was well daubed over with mud. It was not so safe against fire as a stone chimney, but otherwise it was good enough. Many a time, when Hans was working out in the "new-ground," he would keep his eye on the little wooden chimney; and when he would see the smoke come rolling out in a big cloud he would know that Hannah was cooking dinner or supper; and he would say to himself, "I guess I'd better go to the house."

(3. CONCLUSION)

To-morrow you may begin building a little house. You may place it near the little wigwam; and I want you to make it look just like the one that Hans and Hannah built. When it is finished I will tell you what kind of furniture and cooking utensils Hans and Hannah had in their house.

SECOND EXAMPLE OF EXPANDED PLAN

FOR THE FIFTH OR SIXTH GRADE

DEVELOPMENT BY MEANS OF A LOGICAL SERIES OF
QUESTIONS

A. Memoranda

1. Subject of the Course: American History.
2. Subject for To-day: Robert Fulton and his Great Invention.
3. Textbook; Pages assigned: Chandler and Chitwood's *Makers of American History*, pages 187-191.
4. Pupils' References:
 - (1) Magill's *History of Virginia*, pages 237-239;
 - (2) Frances M. Perry's *Four American Inventors*, pages 11-69.
5. Teacher's References:
 - (1) *Great Events by Famous Historians*, Vol. XV, pages 159-169;
 - (2) Danske Dandridge's *Historic Shepherdstown*, pages 267-277.

6. Assignment for To-morrow : Given in the Conclusion.
7. Materials Suggested : Pictures of Fulton, of canal boats, early steamboats, etc. Models would be helpful and interesting.

B. Outline of Class Work

(For To-day)

(1. INTRODUCTION)

Yesterday we studied the life and work of Eli Whitney, who, by his great invention, made cotton "king"; to-day we shall get acquainted with Robert Fulton, who succeeded in making every great river in our land a highway of travel and commerce.

(2. DEVELOPMENT)

1. In what State was Fulton born, Mary? (Penn.)
2. In what county of that State? (Lancaster)
3. In what year? (1765)
4. Of what nationality was Fulton's father, John? (Irish)

You have answered correctly. Now listen to this: Fulton, an Irishman, was born in a county of Germans; but the county, as well as the State, has an English name; and the year was 1765, the very one in which the British Stamp Act was passed.

5. Why did Fulton, as a boy, have to depend upon himself, Jane?
6. What effect did this likely have upon his character, Thomas?

7. Why was he so anxious, after a while, to go to England, Susan?
8. Tell us of another famous man he met in England.
9. What plan did he conceive as he watched the canal boats, George?
10. Is it not strange that Fulton, the artist, should have thought of undertaking such a difficult mechanical task?
11. Whose invention did he propose to utilize in his boat, Edna?
12. Do you think that Fulton had ever heard of a steamboat before?
13. Now, William; I want you to go to the blackboard and write down in three lines three difficulties that Fulton had to overcome, *William*.
 - (a. Lack of confidence on the part of the public)
 - (b. The actual construction of the boat)
 - (c. Lack of money)
14. Which of these difficulties was overcome last, Flora?
15. Which had to be overcome first?
16. Who helped Fulton to overcome this one, Frank?
Notice: Two Roberts, one with brains, the other with money, and both with a will, made a strong combination.
17. A banker in New York also furnished some money: Why do we not know his name, Anna?
18. What did Fulton name his boat, James?
19. On what river did he test it?
20. Between what two cities was the trial trip made, Grace?
21. What is the distance?
22. In how many hours did the *Clermont* make the trip, Ralph?

23. This was an average of about how many miles an hour?

24. Could you walk five miles an hour? Suppose you ran?

25. If a sailboat sometimes made ten miles an hour, what advantage had the *Clermont*, Nora?

26. Does not this suggest to us the chief value of the steamboat? It can always be counted on, wind or calm, up stream or down.

27. I think you ought to remember the year in which the *Clermont* made its successful trial trip: It was just 200 years after Jamestown was settled: Yes, 1807. Now, 1807 was also the year in which Robert E. Lee was born. Moreover, in 1807 Congress passed a famous law called the Embargo, which you will learn about later.

(3. CONCLUSION)

~~Richard~~, you may go to the board and write down the qualities in Fulton's boat that made it a success. ^{Richard} The class may make suggestions.

Now, Lucy, you may go to the board and write down the qualities in Fulton himself that made him a success. The class may make suggestions.

Which set of qualities was the more important? Why?

To-morrow I shall call upon some one to tell us the story of Fulton. Then, for the remainder of the period, we shall talk about James Rumsey and others who invented steamboats before 1807.

THIRD EXAMPLE OF EXPANDED PLAN

FOR THE SEVENTH OR EIGHTH GRADE

DEVELOPMENT BY MEANS OF A LOGICAL SERIES OF
TOPICS

A. Memoranda

1. Subject of the Course : American History.
2. Subject for To-day : The Crisis of 1837.
3. Textbook ; Pages assigned : Lee's *New School History of the United States*, pages 227, 228.
4. Pupils' References :
 - (1) Woodrow Wilson's *Division and Reunion*, pages 86-98 ;
 - (2) Coman's *Industrial History of the United States*, pages 198-201 ;
 - (3) Wilson's *History of the American People*, Vol. IV, pages 66-75 ;
 - (4) Garner and Lodge's *History of the United States*, Vol. II, pages 887-890.
5. Teacher's References :
 - (1) Burgess's *The Middle Period*, pages 283-286 ;
 - (2) Bogart's *Economic History of the United States*, pages 221-224.
6. Assignment for To-morrow : The Crisis of 1873.
7. Materials Suggested : Old state bank notes ; national bank notes ; diagrams showing the rise and fall of values ; etc.

B. Outline of Class Work

(For To-day)

(1. INTRODUCTION)

Having devoted the preceding lesson to the prosperity and material development of our country during Jackson's eight-year "reign," we shall now take up for study the depressing reaction that fell upon the early days of Jackson's successor. In accordance with this plan, particular topics were assigned yesterday to the different members of the class; and the reports upon these topics will now be heard.

(2. DEVELOPMENT)

1. Jackson's War against the United States Bank (Zeno Cole).
2. The Growth of State Banking (Ida Gates).
3. The Rapid Building of Railroads (David Bruce).
4. Speculation in Government Land (Hilda May).
5. The General Craze for Speculation (Roland Frank).
6. The Specie Circular and Its Effect (Ella Gay).
7. The Banks in Panic (Roger Gill).
8. Business in Panic (Lida Kelley).
9. Laborers in Want (Charles Jones).
10. The Causes of the Crash: A Summary (Agnes Lile).
11. The Results of the Depression: A Summary (Albert Wise).

(3. CONCLUSION)

Having studied this crisis somewhat, let us next take up for consideration the crisis of 1873. If we can understand these two, or any two, we can probably understand

all crises ; for while each crisis has its own peculiar features, all crises are in the main alike. They all come when times are good, which usually means that business credit is strained to the breaking point ; and when loss of confidence in men means loss of money — perhaps to millions.

NOTE. — On Lesson Plans see also pages 167-223 of Strayer's "A Brief Course in the Teaching Process" ; The Macmillan Co., New York.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE TEACHER'S NEED TO KNOW BOOKS

It should be one of the aims of the history teacher to introduce his pupils to books, magazines, pamphlets, and other publications from which information on historical subjects may be obtained. A library is not enough; a list of books is not enough; the pupil needs to see the book, to handle it, to look into it, and to become familiar enough with it to remember something about it, or at least to remember that there is such a book. The teacher, therefore, must bring books into his class room and show them to his pupils, or go with the pupils into the library and guide them to the books. All this should not be necessary, to be sure, with experienced students; but sometime or other it is necessary with almost every pupil.

To be able to introduce his pupils to books, and to the best books, and to be able to answer all the questions of intelligent pupils regarding sources of information on this, that, and the other topic, the teacher needs to know books.

Part of the business of every student in a normal school is to get acquainted with books. It would

be of little use for a mechanic to have the most improved tools in his outfit if he did not know those tools were in existence. It would seem absurd for him not to know it. The teacher who does not know the existence of the best books in her special subject, even though these books may be in the library of her own school, is placed in a position no whit less absurd. In fact, such a teacher does not know her business, or the means at her hand for good work.

It is the purpose, therefore, of this chapter to emphasize this need of the teacher to know books; and, in the second place, to help the teacher and the normal school student to get acquainted with some books that will be useful to them. No attempt is made to give a list of books on subject matter, but a select list of professional books and essays is submitted. These publications not only give outlines of courses of study, present discussions of principles and tendencies in education, and suggest methods of instruction and study, but also contain lists of all sorts of books on all sorts of historical subjects. In short, through acquaintance with a few professional books the teacher will be introduced to numerous other books in which particular facts of history are collected.

The list of books submitted is selective rather than exhaustive. It is made up mainly of books that may easily be obtained from the respective publishers,

and of reports contained in bound volumes of the proceedings of learned societies that should be found in every school library. In a number of instances descriptive notes have been appended, in the effort to give the reader a more definite notion of the scope or character of the publication.

A Professional Bibliography

A brief list of books, essays, reports, etc., containing outlines of courses, discussions of principles, outlines of methods, bibliographies, etc., for American teachers and students of history.

ADAMS: *The Teaching of History*; pp. 245-263, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, 1896.

ALLEN: *Place of History in Education*; D. Appleton & Co., New York.

ALLEN: *Topical Studies in American History*; The Macmillan Co., New York. — Contains valuable references to numerous publications.

ANDREWS: *Outline of the Principles of History*; Ginn & Co., Boston.

BAILEY: *For the Story Teller*; Milton Bradley Co., Springfield, Mass.

BARNARD: *The Teaching of Civics in Elementary and Secondary Schools*; pp. 84-90, *Journal, National Education Association*, 1913.

BARNES: *Studies in American History*; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

BARNES: *Studies in Historical Method*; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1896.

BARNES: *The Historic Sense among Primitive Peoples*; pp. 29-

38 of *Studies in Education*, edited by Earl Barnes; Stanford University, California, 1896.

BLAKE: *Peace in the Schools*; pp. 140-146, *Journal, National Education Association*, 1911. — The duty and opportunity of the schools in the international peace movement are finely set forth in a number of publications issued by the American School Peace League, Boston. Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews, 405 Marlboro Street, is secretary of the League, and will answer inquiries.

BLISS: *History in Elementary Schools*; American Book Co., New York.

BOURNE: *The Teaching of History and Civics in the Elementary and the Secondary School*; Longmans, Green & Co., New York; 12mo, 385 pages; new edition, 1912. — Part I deals with the study and teaching of history; Part II outlines a course of study. Pages 366-381 relate to the teaching of civics.

BOYER: *History*; Chapter IX (pp. 254-265) of *Modern Methods for Teachers*; J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1908.

BURR: *Reports on European and American History*; with others; pp. 63-86, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, 1907.

✓ CHANNING: *Guide to the Study and Reading of American History*; with others; Ginn & Co., Boston. — Revised edition, 1912; 12mo, 650 pages. Part I, Status and Methods; Part II, Classified Bibliographies; Part III, Teaching and Reading History; Part IV, Colonial History and the Revolution; Part V, United States History, 1781-1865; Part VI, Recent United States History, 1865-1910. This is perhaps the most convenient guide to sources of information on various subjects, for different sections of the country, that has been published.

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- FARRAND: *Report of the Conference on History in the College Curriculum*; pp. 103–125, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, 1906.
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- HARRISON: *The Meaning of History, and Other Essays*; The Macmillan Co., London, 1894; New York edition, 1900.
- HART: *The American School of Historical Writers*; pp. xxvii-xlvii, Vol. I, *Harper's Encyclopædia of United States History*.
- ✓ HARTWELL: *The Teaching of History*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1913; 16mo, 70 pages. — An excellent small volume on ways and means.
- HASKINS: *Report on the Conference on the First Year of College Work in History*; with others; pp. 147-174, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association, 1905*.
- HINSDALE: *How to Study and Teach History*; D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1893; 12mo, 365 pages. — The first 152 pages deal with history in its character and relations, and with the teacher's qualifications; pp. 153-313 outline the history field, particularly in the United States; pp. 314-336 relate to the teaching of civics.
- JAEGER: *The Teaching of History*; Lemcke & Buechner.
- JAMES: *Report of the Conference on the Teaching of History in the Elementary Schools*; with others; pp. 133-145, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association, 1905*; pp. 61-104, *idem*, 1906. — These conferences led to the report of the Committee of Eight.
- JORDAN: *War and Manhood*; pp. 61-71, *Journal, National Education Association, 1910*.
- KEATINGE: *Studies in the Teaching of History*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- KEMP: *Outline of History for the Grades*; Ginn & Co., Boston.
- LAMPRECHT: *What is History?* The Macmillan Co., New York.

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LANGLOIS: *Introduction to the Study of History*; with Seignobos; Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1903. — A technical work for advanced students — particularly writers of history.

LARNED: *The Literature of American History*; Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1902. — A bibliographical guide of much value.

McLAUGHLIN: *History in Secondary Schools*; pp. 65–84, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, 1908.

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McMURRY: *History and Civil Government*; with others; pp. 162–315 in Vol. V of *Public School Methods*; School Methods Co., Chicago, 1912.

✓ McMURRY: *Special Method in History*; The Macmillan Co., New York, 1908; 12mo, 291 pages. — An excellent manual. The discussions and suggestions are particularly sane and helpful, but the course of study as outlined is overloaded with too great a variety of topics.

J MACE: *Method in History*; Ginn & Co., Boston, 1898; 12mo, 311 pages. — The nature and value of history are presented; a division of the field of U. S. history is offered; the elementary phases of history teaching are discussed.

MAITLAND: *Essays on the Teaching of History*; with Gwatkin and others; Cambridge University Press, England.

MARSH: *Aids in United States History*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

OMAN: *The Study of History*; Oxford University Press, England.

OSGOOD: *Research in American Colonial and Revolutionary History*; pp. 111–127, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, 1908.

RICE: *Course of Study in History and Literature*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago. — Shows the intimate relation between history and literature.

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- RILEY: *History in the High School*; pp. 107-115, *Journal, Southern Educational Association*, 1908.
- ROBINSON: *The New History*; The Macmillan Co., New York.
- ROBINSON: *The Teaching of European History in the College*; pp. 267-278, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, 1896.
- ROOSEVELT: *History as Literature*; *American Historical Review*, April, 1913.
- SEVEN, COMMITTEE OF: *The Study of History in Schools*; report to the American Historical Association; The Macmillan Co., New York, 1906. — Treats of history in the secondary schools. An excellent manual for high school teachers.
- SEVERANCE: *Second Report on State and Local Historical Societies*; pp. 175-217, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, 1905; Third Report, *idem*, pp. 125-158, 1906.
- SIOUSSAT: *Problems of State and Local Historical Societies*; pp. 147-167, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, 1908.
- SPARKS: *Relations of Geography to History*; pp. 57-61, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, 1908.
- SYLVESTER: *The New Practical Reference Library*; 6 vols.; Hanson-Bellows Co., Chicago. — Vol. VI, pp. 332-434, contains a division on history and history teaching, comprising outlines, diagrams, lists of questions, etc.
- TAFT: *The Relation of Education to Democratic Government*; pp. 71-78, *Journal, National Education Association*, 1910.
- TALKINGTON: *How to Study and Teach History and Civics in the Grades*; Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.
- TEN, COMMITTEE OF: *Secondary School Studies*; report to the National Education Association; American Book Co., New York, 1894. — Pages 162-203 are devoted to history, civil government, and political economy.
- TRAINER: *How to Teach and Study United States History*; A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

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- TURNER: *Relation of Geography and History*; pp. 45-48, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, 1907.
- TURNER: *The West as a Field for Historical Study*; pp. 281-319, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, 1896.
— Contains valuable lists of references for different states.
- TYLER: *Research in Southern History*; pp. 131-143, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, 1908.
- VINCENT: *Historical Research*; Henry Holt & Co., New York.
- WILSON: *The Significance of American History*; pp. xxi-xxvi, Vol. I, *Harper's Encyclopædia of United States History*.
- WOODBURN: *Report of Conference on United States History since 1865*; pp. 85, 86, Vol. I, *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, 1907.

Teachers are frequently called upon to give an estimate of this or that book; and in the selection of textbooks for his classes the teacher must form opinions as to the relative merits of different books, unless he is willing to be guided altogether by the statements of others. In the hope of suggesting some of the points to be considered in making up an estimate of a history textbook the following outline is submitted.

OUTLINE FOR REVIEWING A TEXTBOOK IN HISTORY

1. Name of author; exact title; name of publisher; place and date of publication.
2. Your acquaintance with the book. — Have you used the book as a student or as a teacher, or as both? or have you only given it a hasty reading?
3. The historical veracity of the book. — Is it accurate and fair?

4. Proportion of parts. — Are the topics well selected, and is the emphasis well placed?
5. The literary style. — Is it clear and interesting?
6. Maps and illustrations.
7. Teaching helps, bibliographies, index.
8. General appearance and make-up.
9. Adaptability. — Does it suit your grade or your class?

NOTE. — In connection with this chapter the reader is referred to "Note-Taking," by S. S. Seward, Jr. (Allyn & Bacon), and to "Scientific Book-Marking," by John W. Wayland, in the *Sewanee Review* of April, 1913. These two treatises might be cited also in connection with Chapter XV and Chapter XXVII.

CHAPTER XXX

THE TEACHER'S NEED TO KNOW HIMSELF

PERHAPS no power can bestow upon the teacher the gift of seeing himself as others see him ; but it is quite possible for him to know in some degree whether his methods are good or bad ; and which are good and which are bad. If he can know in a measure how his pupils see him, he should thereby be enabled to escape some blunders and to rid himself of at least a few foolish notions.

It would doubtless help every teacher to get occasional frank criticisms from his maturer pupils. The teacher ought to learn just as much from his class as the class learns from him. Mutual sympathy and confidence should be fostered, and no pupil should be afraid to express himself frankly and fully regarding the teacher's manner and methods if the latter ask for such an expression. It is a confession of weakness or a false sense of pride sheltering in ignorance if the teacher feels that his dignity and influence would be endangered by taking his pupils into such a degree of confidence.

I suspect, however, that in spite of this heart-to-heart talk the majority of my fellow teachers will

go ahead in the same old way, blissfully imagining either that they have no faults in their manners and methods or that their pupils are blind to such faults. Accordingly, to offer a little help in the matter, and at the same time to spare tender feelings, I am going to put down in this chapter a great many things that pupils have said about "other teachers." This is done in the hope that we all may see ourselves and profit in some degree.

For a number of years I have been collecting opinions that pupils have had concerning their teachers of history. Tabular statements of good points and bad points have been asked for in each case. Hundreds of different students, most of them of rather mature judgment, have been interviewed, and hundreds of different statements have been received. The majority of these statements, however, fall into groups, a fact which shows that there are certain faults and virtues that are more or less common to our profession. All the statements subjoined are actual ones, from the pupils themselves. They were all made regarding teachers of history. They all show thought; some poorer, some better, judgment. They all make us keenly aware that our pupils are watching us, and that they have opinions about us and our ways of doing things.

BAD POINTS THAT PUPILS HAVE OBSERVED IN HISTORY
TEACHERS

1. Not enough class discussion.
2. Too much attention to small incidents.
3. Not enough holidays celebrated.
4. Not enough historical excursions.
5. Bad proportion in assignment of lessons: too long one day and too short the next.
6. Fails to emphasize historical geography enough.
7. Cause and effect not sufficiently brought out.
8. Does not know the subject.
9. Not very enthusiastic over history.
10. Dwells too long on the first part of the chapter, and not enough on the last.
11. Too much stress on dates.
12. Not enough daily demand upon the class regarding the assignment in the textbook.
13. Not definite enough in making assignments.
14. "We have to make our notebooks for you rather than for ourselves."
15. Reference readings stated too indefinitely.
16. Not enough questions asked.
17. Too few tests given.
18. Very seldom speaks of current events.
19. Reads stories instead of telling them.
20. Test questions are too frequently "memory questions" instead of "thought questions."
21. Questions are not interesting enough.
22. Does not emphasize important points.
23. Not enough reviews.
24. Requiring the pupil to memorize, word for word, the matter of the text.

25. Having the children recite the lesson assigned, without making any connection with what went before, and without giving any definite notion as to where the events occurred.

26. Teaching the textbook only.

27. Depending entirely upon the textbook.

28. The same method every day.

29. Using only questions given in the textbook.

30. Accepting any answer the child may give.

31. The teacher's doing all the talking.

32. Failing to explain what the child does not understand.

33. Using textbooks too difficult for the pupil.

34. Having the forward pupils recite, but never giving the backward ones a chance.

It is certainly to be hoped that no one teacher is guilty on all these different counts; but something in the catalogue may come close enough home to somebody to be helpful. The honest teacher will admit a fault when it is clearly shown against him; and the earnest teacher will be glad for an opportunity to profit by somebody else's observation. Whether we think that all the points scored above are "bad points" or not, they are at least interesting as coming from the pupil's viewpoint. They are commended to the earnest consideration of those teachers of history who are anxious for improvement.

So many things have been said, and so many things may be said, in criticism of the history teacher, that all of us should be glad when something is found

to strengthen his heart. It gives the heart new strength and life a larger aim, my fellow teachers, when those for whom we labor rise up and speak a word of praise. The hope and joy of every teacher are bound fast to the minds and hearts of his pupils. It would be wrong, therefore, to put down in cold type the list of criticisms given above, without presenting also some of the "good points" put in balance with the adverse criticisms. In nearly every case investigated, the number of good points credited to the teacher exceeded the number of bad points charged against him.

Whatever values may be attached to the various things enumerated below, it will certainly be allowed by even the most critical that many of them are desirable in a teacher of history or of anything else. An inspection of the list should help the teacher to get a few more ideas as to what the average pupil thinks worth while in his teacher.

GOOD POINTS OBSERVED IN HISTORY TEACHERS

1. Making history seem real to the pupils.
2. Showing that there are two sides to all great questions.
3. Labeling important years in history.
4. Making the subject interesting by the use of charts, maps, historical poems, special lectures, etc.
5. Enthusiasm for the work.
6. Frankness and sincerity with pupils.

7. Singing state, national, and school songs.
8. Sympathy and patience.
9. Blackboard maps and diagrams.
10. Interest in the pupils as well as in the subject.
11. Using materials outside the textbook.
12. Giving lists of review questions.
13. Historical excursions.
14. Suggestions regarding a history museum, history scrapbooks, etc.
15. Discovering the pupil's attitude toward history.
16. Use of a historical calendar.
17. Frequent use of illustrations.
18. Keeping every one on the lookout for new materials.
19. Having only a select list of dates to be learned.
20. Viewing wars in general, not in detail.
21. "A manner in the teacher that tends to make the student perfectly frank in expressing what she really thinks. The student needs never to be afraid that her view will not meet with sympathetic consideration."
22. Variety in the work.
23. Correlating history with other subjects.
24. Trying to make the class enjoy the work.
25. Suggestions as to the best way to proceed in getting up the next day's lesson.
26. Does not make a skeleton of history.
27. Presenting the facts of history so that they have a result in character-building.
28. Showing the importance of history.
29. Makes the lesson interesting.
30. Clear statement of questions.
31. Study of sources.
32. Shows the need of history in the study of literature.

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33. Presents the topics in logical order.
34. Develops initiative in the student.
35. Originality.
36. Correlation of events.
37. Gives clear descriptions and vivid illustrations.
38. Discussing in class common mistakes made in written work.
39. Emphasis on neatness in all written work.
40. Encourages the pupils to ask questions.
41. Does not expect an unreasonable amount of work in an unreasonably short time.
42. Arouses in the pupils a desire to know more about the present, as well as the past, of our land.
43. Manifests a keen sense of justice.

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